



3 1151 02069 2566

THE EISENHOWER LIBRARY



THE TRUSTEES OF THE JOHN F. SLATER FUND
Occasional Papers, No. 23

A Study of
COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS
FOR
NEGROES IN THE SOUTH

BY
LEO MORTIMER FAVROT

State Agent of Rural Schools for Negroes in Louisiana

Charlottesville, Va.
1923



A Study of
COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS
FOR
NEGROES IN THE SOUTH

BY
LEO MORTIMER FAVROT

State Agent of Rural Schools for Negroes in Louisiana

Charlottesville, Va.
1923

Introduction

This very careful and complete study of the County Training Schools is published in the hope that it will prove useful to all who are interested in the development and improvement of these schools. The origin and the purpose of these so-called County Training Schools have been set forth elsewhere and need not be repeated here. Let me refer to Occasional Papers Nos. 14 and 18, and to the Proceedings and Reports of the John F. Slater Fund for the years ending September 30, 1921, pages 12-18, and September 30, 1922, pages 11-17.

Four of the chapters in the present publication were prepared by Mr. Favrot in connection with graduate study in Peabody College. We are glad that he continued his investigations and brought the work to its present completeness. No one could have been better qualified by training and experience to make this study. Mr. Favrot is a graduate of Tulane University, and has occupied the position of State Agent for colored schools in both Arkansas and Louisiana, in which positions he was instrumental in establishing a number of these Training Schools. It is a pleasure to record here that he has been recently appointed to the position of Field Agent of the General Education Board in conjunction with Mr. Jackson Davis.

JAMES H. DILLARD.

Charlottesville, Va.

June 30, 1923.

G. F.
Aug. 1, 1923.

Preface

The purpose of this study has been to learn pertinent facts concerning the group of Negro county training schools in thirteen states of the South, to give thoughtful consideration to some of their problems, and to make recommendations for the improvement of these schools based on the findings.

The data were gathered partly by the questionnaire method and partly from reports and records. Seven different forms were sent to principals, teachers or county superintendents through the courtesy and co-operation of state agents of rural schools for Negroes connected with state departments of education in these states. The state agents also gave or had given in some of these schools standardized tests, the results of which are presented in this study. Annual reports of these schools for several years past were furnished by agents of the John F. Slater Fund and the General Education Board, both of which agencies have assisted the schools financially.

The particular problems studied relate to the general organization, administration and support of these schools; the number, salaries, experience, qualification and work of teachers; the curricula; the attendance and age-grade distribution of pupils; and the achievement of pupils in silent reading, arithmetic, and English composition. The views of county superintendents on the standing of these schools are given.

The facts and findings are here presented in six chapters of discursive treatment, two diagrams, and twenty-one statistical tables. The summary of findings and recommendations has been placed at the beginning of the pamphlet instead of at the close, for the convenience of those who have not time to read the entire study.

The writer wishes to make acknowledgment for valued assistance given him in making this study to Dr. J. H. Dillard and Miss Gertrude C. Mann, of the Slater Board, to Mr. Jackson Davis, Field Agent of the General Education Board, and his secretary, Miss Williamson, to the State Agents of Negro Rural Schools in the Southern States, to principals of county training schools and county superintendents, for furnishing data; to his secretary, Miss Katie Collins of the Louisiana State Department of Education for compiling and tabulating data; to Dr. Norman Frost of Peabody College for valuable advice and suggestions in the preparation of the manuscript, and to Dr. Abraham Flexner of the General Education Board for general co-operation.

CONTENTS

Chapters	Page
I. The Origin, Growth, and Present Status of County Training Schools	8
II. Teachers in County Training Schools, Their Number, Salaries, Experience, Qualifications and Work	17
III. The Curriculum	27
IV. Irregular Attendance, Retardation, and Distance Pupils Come to School	42
V. Achievement of Pupils	51
VI. What County Superintendents Say of County Training Schools.	59
<hr/>	
Statistical Tables and Computations	65

Summary of Findings and Recommendations

The facts about training schools and the inferences drawn from these facts reveal more or less clearly their strong and weak points. Of their defects it may be said that most of them are the faults of rural schools generally, and particularly of rural schools in the South, as shown in several state surveys. Some of these defects are as follows:

1. Many of the schools lack adequate funds. Their aims cannot be realized until salaries are made high enough to attract and hold the best teachers.
2. Many fail to discriminate between good and poor teachers by paying uniform salaries to all teachers regardless of training, tenure, experience or superior service. The salary schedule should aim at rewarding the successful and growing teacher, and serve as an incentive for a more stable teaching corps.
3. Many distribute the teaching load unfairly. Over-crowded primary grades tend to retard pupils and withhold from them a fair chance, besides making more difficult the task of all teachers.
4. The curriculum is usually over-crowded. Industrial and vocational branches have been added, and apparently no subjects have been subtracted from the usual curriculum. The schools need a simplified course of study which will eliminate much that is useless and irrelevant.
5. Much time is lost from irregular attendance. This so handicaps the schools that positive steps are needed such as enforcement of compulsory attendance laws for younger pupils, and special time adjustments to provide half-day sessions during the busy season for larger pupils.
6. There is lack of adequate provision for teaching retarded pupils. The subject-matter and methods used in the

primary grades do not appeal to older boys and girls and do not tend to hold them in school.

7. There are relatively few pupils in the upper grades. If the schools are to produce trained leaders and teachers, the upper grades should have more pupils, and the elementary schools of the county should serve as feeders for them.

8. The schools are handicapped by lack of supervision. The teachers need help in making daily programmes, in making the proper use of text-books and the recitation period, in knowing when and how to drill, in teaching pupils to think, in discovering weaknesses in individual pupils and working to overcome them, and in improving themselves in service. With pupils of low achievement and an inadequately selected and organized curriculum, the need of close expert supervision is obvious.

On the other hand, it may be said that the county training schools have exceptional opportunities for service because of the point of vantage that they occupy. These schools have the following elements of strength:

1. Their rapid increase in numbers and the increasing amount of public funds spent for their support show that they are winning friends among school boards and enjoying public confidence.

2. They have the advantage, not alone of financial aid from philanthropic boards, but of the advice and direction of expert school men in planning and promoting their development.

3. Most of them have good school plants and equipment.

4. They have the good will and support of local patrons as shown by their friendly interest and by the large contributions made for building and equipment.

5. They have attracted pupils from distant parts of the county and from other counties.

6. A large majority of the principals and teachers employed in them are men and women of experience and are better

educated and better trained for their job than the average teacher in these states.

7. Many of the principals and teachers have at various times had the opportunity to attend Hampton or Tuskegee, during the summer at least. Contact with these institutions has helped them to get a new and distinct vision of what their schools ought to be.

8. Current opinion on the part of both races regarding their possibilities and worth not only justify every effort directed towards their further study and improvement, but the pride in these schools, and the spirit of sacrifice and devotion back of them, demand that they be made to fulfill the expectations of those who believe in them.

In fact, these county training schools, through the friends they have and the confidence they enjoy, are in far better position than the average school to correct defects and strengthen weaknesses. They must retain the confidence they now enjoy. They owe it to themselves, as well as to the cause they represent, to perfect their organization so as to accomplish the large task that awaits them.

CHAPTER I

THE ORIGIN, GROWTH, AND PRESENT STATUS OF COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The establishment of county training schools for Negroes in the South dates from the session 1911-'12, at which time four schools of this type were organized. Their early beginnings and aspirations are interestingly described in an address delivered in 1913 before the Southern Sociological Congress meeting in Atlanta, Georgia, by Mr. B. C. Caldwell, Field Agent of the Slater Fund. This fund from the beginning has fostered and nurtured this movement. An extract from this address follows:

"At this time more than three-fourths of the Slater money is still applied to higher and urban work. But for two or three years past it has been experimenting with some new and promising work in the country.

"Three years ago a parish superintendent in Louisiana applied to the Slater Fund for assistance in establishing a county high school for Negro children. Almost at the same time a county superintendent in Arkansas, one in Virginia and one in Mississippi proposed substantially the same thing. It was the purpose in each case to train teachers for the schools of the county. Trained teachers cannot be had for the meager salary paid country Negro teachers, and each of these superintendents hoped to get a regular and fairly good supply of teachers trained to do the work needed in that county.

"Superintendent A. C. Lewis of Tangipahoa Parish, Louisiana, was the first to undertake to establish such a school. He named it the Parish Training School for Colored Children and located it at Kentwood, a little village in the piney woods part of the parish. The parish school board furnished the teachers and equipment, the Brooks-Scanlon Lumber Company furnished the house and ten acres of land, and the Slater Fund agreed to give \$500 a year for three

years. The school is now in its second year, and promises to render valuable services to the parish.

"Three similar schools have been established: one in Newton County, Mississippi, in which the county, the town of Newton, and an organization of colored people contributed, and the Slater Fund pledged \$500 a year for three years; at Hope, Arkansas, a town school supported by the state and local funds, was converted into a central training school (not county, because there is no county school body), and the funds were raised by the town, the local cotton men, and the white and colored citizens individually with the same Slater contribution; and in Sabine Parish, Louisiana, a large community school seven miles in the country was made the parish training school, with parish authority and support, and liberal contributions of the timber interests owning land all around the school, with the same Slater contribution of \$500 a year.

"There are no precedents to follow in this work. Every county in the South has felt the need of fairly well-trained teachers in its Negro rural schools. But so far as we know this is the first time that superintendents have deliberately planned to get them by training them at home. Each county will have to feel its way towards the end in view. All of them are making the training schools distinctly industrial and agricultural all the way through the course offered; and some are already giving class-work and handicraft of real merit. It will take several years to work out the plan; and local authorities will give their individual stamp to it. But thus far it looks good, and the end in view goes to the very heart of the whole business of Negro public schools."

As the county training school idea spread to new counties and the number increased from year to year, it became apparent that a fuller and clearer description of their aims and purposes and a more definite formulation of standards of achievement which it was hoped these schools might reach would be helpful to those already established and to those that might be organized in the future. Accordingly, two of

the state agents of rural schools for Negroes connected with state departments of education in the South were chosen to prepare a suggested course of study for county training schools. This was published by the Slater Board in 1917,¹ and sets forth the aims and purposes of these schools as follows:

"1. To supply for the county a central school offering work in advance of that offered in the common rural schools.

"2. To lay emphasis on thorough work in all common school studies.

"3. To give industrial training, laying particular emphasis upon subjects pertaining to home and farm.

"4. To prepare boys and girls to make a good living and lead a useful life by knowing how to care for the home, to utilize the land, to make home gardens, to raise their own meat, poultry products, etc.

"5. To prepare young men and young women to become rural and elementary school teachers by enabling them to meet the legal requirements of the states, by giving them a close acquaintance and sympathy with rural activities, and by supplying such elementary training as will help them to secure the best results in this work."

AID FROM PHILANTHROPIC BOARDS AND AGENCIES OUTSIDE OF THE COUNTIES.

In granting financial aid to training schools, philanthropic boards have always helped local school boards to carry out their own aims and policies for the development of these schools. In order to accomplish their general aims and purposes, it has been necessary to make such conditions for granting aid as would best insure permanence and success. The conditions have invariably been few and liberal in order to give remote and poor counties a fair opportunity to meet them. The conditions under which the Slater Board has

1. Slater Fund, Charlottesville, Va., Occasional Papers, No. 18.

given aid are set down in the Report of the John F. Slater Fund for 1920, as follows:

"The offer of the Slater Fund was to give \$500 for salaries of teachers on the following conditions, which have been maintained from the first:

"1. The school property shall belong to the state, county, or district, and the school shall be a part of the public school system.

"2. There shall be an appropriation for salaries of not less than \$750 from public funds raised by state, county, or district taxation.

"3. The length of term shall be at least eight months.

"4. The teaching shall extend through the eighth year, with the intention of adding at least two years as soon as it shall be possible to make such extension."

It is the hope of the Slater Fund that its appropriations to individual schools may be discontinued after these schools have become well organized, and the public school boards support them altogether. The Slater Fund, therefore, attempts to supply its appropriations on the following diminishing scale: \$500 per year for the first three years; \$250 per year for the next two years; and \$100 for needed equipment after the expiration of the five years.

In 1913-'14, the General Education Board adopted the policy of aiding the county training schools to buy equipment, including furniture, industrial equipment for boys' and girls' industries, and libraries, and later assisted in building teachers' homes and dormitories. In 1920, an appropriation was made to assist in paying salaries of teachers in county training schools, in order to assist school boards to raise the standard of the teaching force in these schools. The amount was made large enough for 1920-'21 to enable local school boards to pay as minimum salaries, \$1,000 a year for principals, and \$500 a year for assistant teachers, and the understanding is that this appropriation diminishes by one-fifth of the

original amount each year, and is discontinued after the fifth year. This condition virtually sets a minimum salary standard for new county training schools.

A philanthropic board which has contributed towards the development of the county training schools is The Julius Rosenwald Fund, which has not only given money towards the building of schoolhouses and teachers' homes for county training schools, but has helped to supply standards for these buildings and to make them modern, sanitary and convenient. The records up to April, 1922, show that 52 county training schools in 10 states have received from this source, \$60,325 towards the building of school houses at a total cost of \$577,181 and 19 training schools in 9 states have received \$18,565 towards the construction of teachers' homes at a total cost of \$55,680.

THE GROWTH OF COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS.

During the past ten years training schools have grown from 4 to 142 in number, the teaching corps from 20 to 848 teachers and the amount expended annually for salaries from \$5,344 to \$478,334.² The amount invested in training school plants grew in 10 years from \$28,760, invested in the school plants of the first four schools, to \$1,590,262, which represents the value of the 142 plants in 1920-'21, the average expenditure being \$2,781 per session at the beginning, as against \$7,097 ten years later.³ The location of training schools for 1922 is shown on the attached map.

The spread of the county training school idea shows increasing interest as well as a distinct achievement in Negro education. A study of this kind, however, must concern itself, not alone with the total growth in number and support, but also with the progress of these schools towards the accomplishment of the specific aims for which they were organized. To measure such progress, it is necessary to

2. See appendix, Table I.

3. See appendix, Table II.

compare the training schools as they are in one session with the same training schools as they are at a later session. The very recent origin of all of the schools and their checkered careers in their early stages make it difficult to present or to give too much weight to the results of such a comparison. Five years ago only 27 schools existed and some of these have fallen by the wayside. In order to get a sufficient number of schools to make such a comparison worth while, it is not possible to go back farther than three years. The records of 48 training schools for the session 1917-'18 and the records of the same schools for 1920-'21 offer a basis for such a comparison.⁴

The number of teachers in the schools compared has increased by 20%. The number of pupils has increased by only 14%. Since this implies that the average number of pupils to the teacher has decreased, the comparison indicates a slight improvement in one of the most serious handicaps from which Negro schools suffer,—their overcrowded condition. One teacher had in 1917-18 an average of 45 pupils, whereas in 1920-'21, one teacher had 43 pupils. In studying the records of individual schools, however, we find that in 19 out of 46 schools, the average number of pupils per teacher has actually increased in three years and in only 20 of the 46 schools is there found an average of fewer than 40 pupils to the teacher. These 46 schools present great variation in the number of pupils per teacher, the range of the average number varying from 18 in a Kentucky training school to 85 in one of the schools in South Carolina. Three of the schools have lost teachers in three years, although they have gained pupils. Thus, although the tendency of the whole group of 46 schools, with respect to the number of teachers and number of pupils per teacher, is towards a higher standard, and although more than one-half of this group of schools shows progress along this line, the records show that approximately 43% of these schools have failed to advance in this respect in three years.

4. See appendix, Table III.

Are more high school pupils found in the training schools in 1920-'21 than in 1917-'18? The number of high school pupils in these schools has increased by 14%. Since the whole number of pupils has increased at the same rate, it may be said that the high school department is holding its own. It was hoped in the beginning, because of the purposes these schools were designed to serve, and because of the lack of opportunity for high school training offered in other Negro schools, that the enrollment in the high school departments would increase at a larger rate than the enrollment in the schools. It is probable that the explanation of their failure to do so may be found in the fact that the schools are too new to have made their influence greatly felt; that the location of the early training schools in the open country and the drift away from the country towards the city has affected high school attendance; and that training schools have had difficulty in supplanting the small local schools and in overcoming the local pride in some of these schools. Perhaps, too, 1920-'21 was an abnormal year in that many boys and girls who should have been in schools were needed on the farms. It may be said further that 1920-'21 was the first session in which the marked salary increase for training school teachers went into effect and the influence of a teaching corps distinctly superior to that of the average school could have had no effect upon the attendance. The fact that the upper grades of the training schools are not filling up rapidly, however, presents before the supervisors, principals, and teachers of these schools the task of advertising and using every legitimate means to call the attention of all of the citizens to the advantages offered by the training schools.

The larger investment in the training schools justifies the expectation of larger returns. The total value of these school plants increased in three years by 75% and nearly 90% of the schools shared in this larger investment. Twenty per cent. more teachers were employed and the amount spent on salaries was increased by 113%. The average salary in 48

schools has increased from \$382.40 per year to \$676.74, an increase of 77% in the average salary. The state reports of 8 of the states in which county training schools are located show that the average salary for Negro teachers for 1919-'20 was well below \$300 a year. Under these circumstances, training schools enjoy an unusual opportunity to secure superior teachers.

It is worth while to note that the increase in salaries has not come solely from the generous donations of the Slater Fund and the General Education Board. The average amount per training schools for salaries from public funds has steadily increased. It is true that a larger proportion of teachers' salaries was paid by philanthropic boards in 1920-'21 (26%) than in 1917-'18 (23%)⁵ but this does not indicate that the training schools are growing more dependent upon outside aid than formerly. The per cent. of increase of salaries from public funds from 1917-'18 to 1920-'21 was 107%. It must be remembered, too, that 1920-'21 was the session in which the General Education Board added more than \$75,000 to the salary fund to raise the minimum salary standard and that the schools benefited have agreed to absorb the annual 20% reduction of this appropriation. The local public school authorities are responding to a marked extent to the stimulation of outside aid and are in no sense growing to depend upon it.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

The facts presented in this chapter justify the following conclusions and recommendations:

1. The rapid increase in the number of county training schools established shows that the South is coming to recognize the need for schools of this type.
2. The larger contributions from public funds for better school plants and teachers' salaries show that school officials believe in these schools.

5. See appendix, Table IV.

3. The aid supplied by philanthropic boards has greatly stimulated self-help and has tended to make these schools increasingly independent.

4. The records of individual schools show that in their early years these have had to struggle to overcome the handicaps common to Negro schools in the South,—a lack of adequate support and too many pupils to the teacher.

5. The need for better educated and trained teachers and leaders among the Negroes in the South is so great that nothing should be left undone to fill up the higher grades in training schools to the end that the schools may better accomplish the purposes for which they were designed.

CHAPTER II

TEACHERS IN COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS—THEIR NUMBER, SALARIES, EXPERIENCE, QUALIFICATIONS AND WORK.

Training schools vary greatly in size, some of them employing as many as 17 teachers and a much larger number employing only 4 teachers. The average number of teachers for training schools is 6. The average number in each state varies from 4 to 8.¹

The annual salary of the principals of county training schools, \$1,048.45, is on the average, well above the \$1,000 minimum standard towards which the schools are striving.² In like manner, the average annual salary of teachers, \$559.27, is well above the \$500 minimum, but 28% of the principals still draw salaries of less than \$1000 and some of these as little as \$600 per session. Thirty per cent. of the teachers are eking out an existence on less than \$500 a session, some receiving as little as \$300.

But as low as is the training school teachers' salaries, the average is distinctly above the average salary of rural teachers in 32 states.³ The average training school principal's salary is \$12.45 more than the average high school teacher's salary for 1918-'19 in a group of 19 cities located in Southern states.⁴ Training school principals' salaries are also \$104.46 higher than the salaries of high school teachers in 55 cities of the United States having a population of more than 5,000, but less than 10,000. Since the training schools resemble more closely, perhaps, rural consolidated schools than schools of any other type, it would be interesting to compare the salaries of the principals of these two types of schools, but

1. See appendix, Table II.

2. See appendix, Table V.

3. Bonner, Bulletin No. 30, U. S. Bureau of Education, 1921.

4. Evenden's Teachers' Salaries and Salary Schedule in the United States, 1918-'19.

data are not available for this purpose. Judging from the recent state reports in the South, however, the small town and rural high school principal in the South is drawing a considerably larger salary, perhaps 50% more than the principal of the training school.

A tendency in many places to pay all teachers, the principal generally excepted, the same salary, is shown in the following lists selected from the many submitted. principals' salaries given first:

List 1	List 2	List 3	List 4	List 5	List 6	List 7	List 8
\$900	\$1000	\$600	\$1200	\$500	\$1500.00	\$900	\$1333.33
450	450	320	500	500	545.40	540	480
450	450	320	500	500	545.40	540	480
450	450	320	500	500	545.40	540	480
450	450	320	500	500	545.40	540	480
450		320		500	545.40	540	480
450				500	545.40	540	
450				500	545.40	540	
					545.40	540	
						545.40	

These lists show, first, that all teachers except the principal receive the same salary. They also show that as a rule there is a great disparity between principals' salaries and the salaries of teachers in the school. In one case the principal receives a salary three times as great annually as one of the assistants. True, this great disparity is due sometimes to the fact that the principal is employed for 12 months and the assistants for 8 months.

Unless we assume the highly improbable condition that all teachers in training schools have the same qualifications for the work, it is clear from these salary lists that salaries are frequently fixed without regard to training, experience, length of service, or quality of the work of the teacher. Where such salary schedules prevail, teachers are offered no incentive for professional improvement and for high grade work. Larger salaries and systematic increases offered as a reward for tenure and improvement in service would insure greater permanence and efficiency in the teaching corps.

TENURE AND EXPERIENCE.

Training schools suffer from the handicap of a frequently changing teaching corps. Of the 732 teachers reporting on the number of sessions taught in the schools in which they were then working, 311, or 42.5% were in these schools for the first year.⁵ The teacher turnover is larger in the training schools than among Negro teachers in Virginia, where, in 1918-'19, a year in which there was an unusual scarcity of teachers and much shifting of positions, the turnover was 31%.⁶ The teacher turnover in training schools is larger also than at least one other state and city school system for which the turnover is on record.⁷

Special inducements should be offered teachers to remain longer than one year in a school. Systematic salary increases have already been mentioned as one way of securing a longer tenure in service. It is sometimes advisable to make contracts for periods longer than one session. It may be that some teachers change because they are not provided with comfortable rooms and respectable boarding places.

Although many teachers are new in the schools in which they are employed, it cannot be said that these teachers are inexperienced or untried. Sixty-four per cent. of the 746 teachers reporting on experience had been teaching five years or longer, while 15% had been teaching 20 or more years.⁸ Only 10.4% are teaching for the first time. Employers seem to be trying to get seasoned teachers into the training schools,—men and women who have established reputations as teachers. Surely if it is worth while to try to get teachers of this kind, it is even more worth while to try to hold them in their positions long enough to give them a chance to make their influence felt upon the pupils and in the community.

5. See appendix, Table VI.

6. See Virginia Survey.

7. Survey of North Dakota and Boise Survey.

8. See Appendix, Table VI.

Experience alone is not necessarily an asset to a teacher. The work of the school may be seriously handicapped by employing old teachers who are not keeping up with the times. Unless experience is accompanied by professional growth and increasing skill, it has no value. The extent to which training school teachers are trying to keep up-to-date is indicated in part by their attendance at summer schools.⁹ One-fifth of the teachers have been in summer schools every summer for three years, nearly one-half (44%) were in summer school at least two out of three summers, and about three-fourths of the number (73.3%) showed attendance at summer school at least one summer out of the three. Only about one-fourth of the whole number (26.7%) report no summer school attendance for three years.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

To show how well educated teachers in training schools are, they have been divided into three groups as follows:

Those holding degrees.....	11.7%
Those holding diplomas.....	69.6%
Those holding neither.....	18.7% ¹⁰

This statement is significant, of course, only when we know the amount of schooling represented by the degrees and diplomas.

Holders of degrees report an average of 8.3 years above the common school. Thirty of the 92 degree holders say that these were gotten from four to seven years after leaving common school. Forty-five indicate that they had eight school years of training after leaving common school and seventeen went to school one or two years longer. Some degrees held by teachers have been issued on completion of a course little beyond the high school. About two-thirds of the degrees represent work 8 years beyond the elementary school. Two titles, L. I. and B. Agri., have not been listed as degrees.

9. See appendix, Table VII.

10. See appendix, Table VIII.

The holders of the B. Agri. degrees in different states pretty well agree that this degree is based on a course six years in advance of the common school. There was no such uniformity with respect to the L. I. degree as the statements of the teachers holding that degree varied. Some of them said that they earned this degree after two years' work beyond the elementary school, and others claimed that it required eight years of high school and college work to earn this degree. The majority of the teachers have given the L. I. degree rank equivalent to a high school diploma.

Degrees are held as follows:

A. M. 1,	A. B. 43,	B. S. 39,	B. Ped. 4,
B. Ph. 3,	LL. B. 1,	M. D. 1.	

The following institutions are reported as having issued these degrees: Alcorn College, 16; Howard and Wiley, 6 each; Shaw and Lincoln, 5 each; Allen, Morris Brown, Roger Williams, Clarke, Virginia Union, 3 each; Fisk, A. & T. (North Carolina), Knoxville, Leland, Virginia Theological Seminary, Benedict, S. C. State, Arkansas Baptist, Okaloosa, Virginia N. & I. I., Alabama A. & M., 2 each; Princeton, Iowa State, Oklahoma State, Clafin, Straight, Bishop, Shorter, Florida A. & M., Paul Quinn, Central, Lane, Atlanta, Wilberforce, Northwestern, North Carolina A. & M., Guadalupe, 1 each.

Diplomas are listed under a variety of names. Normal, high school and academic are most frequent, but there are also found college preparatory diplomas, industrial diplomas of various kinds, literary and scientific diplomas, teachers' professional diplomas, certificates of several kinds, plain diplomas, and combination of two or more of those already named. Probably some of these have a standard value at the institutions issuing them, but so many different values were given them by the teachers in terms of years above the common school that it would not be possible to assign to any of them a specific value on the basis of the data in hand. The

median number of years beyond the common schools, 4.9 years, which is a measure of the advancement of the 69.6% of the teachers holding diplomas, indicates that the academic training of the most of the training school teachers extends at least a year beyond the high school. The 18.7% holding no diplomas have, taking the whole group together, schooling equivalent to 3.7 years beyond the elementary schools.

Only 14.6% of the training school teachers have less than four years of schooling beyond the elementary school. Compare this with the training of rural teachers generally over the South, which recent reports and surveys have shown to be far below this standard, and there is reason for congratulation for the success the training schools are having in securing teachers of distinctly better than average educational qualifications.

In the matter of professional training, nearly one-fourth of the teachers (24.5%) are either without professional training or have had six weeks or less, probably at a summer school. Three hundred and sixty-three teachers, nearly one-half the number (46.5%) have had six months or more of professional training. The data do not show of what this training consisted. The per cent. of teachers trained professionally in the county training schools is much larger than in the rural schools generally. Of 4,700 teachers in Arkansas who replied to a questionnaire concerning their professional qualifications, 71% had had no professional training.¹¹ Of the training school force 206 teachers, 26%, show two years or more of professional training. We may safely assume from the record of academic work that this training approaches closely the usually accepted standard of training for elementary teachers, two years of professional training above a four-year high school course.

It is impossible to tabulate training school teachers by the certificates they hold because of the variety of state plans of

11. Arkansas Survey, U. S. Bureau of Education.

certification and resulting confusion of terms except to those familiar with all plans of certification. It may be said, however, that if we accept such terms as professional, life, state, permanent and first, when attached to a certificate, as evidence of satisfactory general qualifications, we find one or more of these terms attached to 63% of the certificates reported. If we consider certificates bearing the terms high school, grammar, elementary, primary, special, vocational, agricultural and industrial as indicative of fairly satisfactory preparation for work in one of these special fields, then 21% of the teachers qualify. But if we regard the words second, third, temporary, provisional, and permit attached to certificates as partial evidence that there is a lack of preparation for the work, then 16% of the teachers fall short of fairly satisfactory requirements. Measurement of qualifications in terms of low certificate tallies approximately with measurement in terms of no diplomas. The 111 low grade teachers make up 16% of the number reporting on certificates, while those reporting "no diplomas" make up 18.7% of the total number.

THE WORK OF THE TEACHER.

In order to measure one phase of the work of training school teachers, an attempt has been made to class the teachers as: Primary, grades one to three, elementary, grades four to six, high school, grades seven to twelve, and special.¹² In such a classification there is, of course, considerable overlapping. Where this overlapping occurs, however, the plan has been followed of classifying one-half of the overlapping number with the lower group and the other half with the higher group. Only those teachers that give half of their time or more to a special branch are classed as special teachers. Although this method of classifying teachers is not refined, it serves to point out the emphasis placed upon

12. See appendix, Table IX.

the higher grades frequently to the neglect of the lower grades. This matter will be discussed more fully in Chapter IV.

The teaching load may be measured in number of grades, subjects taught and number of daily recitations. Training school teachers are carrying a diversity of loads. One hundred and twenty teachers teach only one grade while 9 work with four full grades.¹³ Eighty-five teachers teach one subject and work in one field only, such as vocational agriculture or home economics, while 58 teachers work usually among high school pupils in four or more different fields, such as mathematics, history, English, and science. One hundred and sixteen teachers teach from two to five periods daily and 28 teachers from 18 to 27 periods daily. Those teaching few periods daily are usually special teachers of agriculture and home economics with recitation periods from 50 to 150 minutes in length, and principals of larger schools, part of whose time is reserved for supervision and administrative duties. Although the length of the recitation period has a range from 11 to 150 minutes the length of recitation period of greatest frequency is found in the interval from 26 to 30 minutes.

A study of the organization of the teachers' work shows that half the teachers carry a load of two full grades or more; 67% of the teachers teach only from 6 to 13 recitations per day, and sixty-three per cent. of the teachers have recitations varying in length from 26 to 50 minutes. Two questions arise in connection with this situation. Is it possible, first, to give pupils the variety of subject-matter recommended in the state courses of study of all of the states having training schools, and provided in our best school system, in so few periods? Is it necessary, next, to make the recitation periods as long as they are made in some of the training schools?

In a carefully worked out programme of daily recitations

13. See appendix, Table X.

for a room for grades 5 to 6,¹⁴ it is found that sixteen recitation periods are required daily to give pupils the quantity and variety of subject-matter recommended. The average length of the recitation periods is 22 minutes. If the programme had been worked out for lower grades, the number of recitation periods would have been greater and the average length of the recitation periods shorter. If the teacher had had to teach more than the two grades, as many of the training school teachers have to do, the recitation periods would again have been greater in number and shorter.

The tendency in recent years among students of education has been to recommend the shortening rather than the lengthening of the recitation period in our city systems. There are grounds for believing that the short snappy recitation period, especially with little children, gets the best results. In articles in the Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, bearing on the distribution of time in the curriculum, the periods recommended for arithmetic are not to exceed 15 minutes for first grade, 20 minutes for second grade, 25 minutes for third grade, and 30 minutes for grades 4 to 7. In spelling, 16 minutes per day is considered ample time for a recitation period. In subjects like writing, geography and history, periods of from 21 to 27 minutes are recommended as a maximum. Reading and language may require a longer time in the upper grades. These recommendations are made for city schools where there is a teacher for each grade. In the county training schools, where the teachers generally carry a heavier load than city teachers in having to teach a greater number of grades or classes, it is clearly impossible for the teachers to give as much time to the recitation period as reports indicate they are giving and teach all the subjects they are expected to teach.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.

1. The salaries paid teachers in training schools, while

¹⁴. State Course of Study for Elementary Schools in Louisiana.

inadequate, are, on the whole, far enough in advance of Negro teachers' salaries in the rural South to attract superior teachers. The \$500 minimum salary should be uniformly adopted.

2. The salary should be determined by the merits of the individual teacher,—education, professional training, successful experience, tenure, improvement in service, and results of instruction should be considered in fixing salaries.

3. A more stable teaching corps is needed in training schools and teachers should be offered inducements to hold them in their positions.

4. Training school teachers are, on the whole, better educated, more experienced, and better prepared professionally than rural school teachers. Training schools demand, however, teachers with at least two years of professional training beyond a four-year high school for the elementary work, and graduation from a standard four-year college for high school work. Those not reaching this standard should systematically attend summer school until they do.

5. The work of the training school should be so distributed as to avoid having the burden of many classes and many pupils fall upon one or two teachers.

6. In order that the proper emphasis may be placed upon essential subjects and essential phases of subjects, the daily programme should be worked out with great care with regard to the number of daily recitations for each teacher and the length of the recitation period.

CHAPTER III.

THE CURRICULUM.

The county training schools were designed, in the beginning, to give thorough schooling in the common elementary branches, to teach principles of right living and some skill in the arts of the home and the farm, to give two or three sessions of schooling in the secondary field, and to give such principles of teaching as would be helpful to those young colored people who should become teachers in the elementary rural schools. As the schools developed, their work in the secondary field came under the influence of the standardizing movement towards unit courses in white high schools, of college entrance requirements, of the educational creeds of some of their principals and teachers, themselves the products of institutions strongly emphasizing fixed requirements in mathematics and Latin, and of the certification laws of various states which compel applicants to teach to stand examinations in subjects which frequently have no bearing whatever on the subjects they are going to teach. Fortunately for the training schools, however, other influences have been at work to keep them true to their original aims. The training schools have been strongly influenced by Hampton and Tuskegee, and other schools similarly organized, with their emphasis upon character building and learning to work, through teachers who have been trained in these institutions or given contact with them during their summer terms. They have also been influenced by a growing sentiment among white people in favor of this type of school, and by the requirements of state and federal laws governing vocational courses in agriculture and home economics, since one-half of these schools offer such courses. There has never been a serious effort to make uniform the training school course of study. True, as has been said, a suggestive course was prepared and issued in 1917. This course was not compulsory, but it must have had

its influence, though it has been outweighed by that of state courses of study and other influences in practically all of the schools. Again, the curriculum has unquestionably been limited by the number of teachers in each school, as well as by what they are prepared to teach. The 4-teacher school cannot attempt to offer the same course of study that the 17-teacher school offers. With the varied influences at work to modify the curricula of county training schools, it is not surprising to find in their offerings a greater variety of subject matter than is usually found in schools outside of large and progressive city systems and most of the modern American colleges.

The curricula of training schools will be studied from two viewpoints: first, the suitability of the subject-matter offered; second, the quantity offered in each grade. In determining suitability of subject-matter, some weight is given to the recommendations of modern writers on the curriculum, but however strongly these recommendations may appeal to common sense, the training and practice of teachers and administrators, and the force of public sentiment are such that any change in the curricula of county training schools must be a compromise between current practice in the schools about them and the usable recommendations of present day thinkers. The suitability of subject-matter should be judged by its relation to life, its appeal to the child as worth while, the needs of the child, and the needs of society. The curriculum should aim to make good citizens and good neighbors, to develop the body, to prepare to earn a living and to know how to make the proper use of spare time.

An analysis of the subject-matter in training schools is here considered under three heads,—academic, industrial-vocational, and teacher-training.¹

SUITABILITY OF ACADEMIC SUBJECT-MATTER.

The first six subjects listed under academic subject-matter

1. See appendix, Tables XI and XII.

all relate to the English language. The first three of these, reading, spelling and English, are listed for a majority of the schools in the sixth and seventh grades. Grammar is listed for one-half of the schools in the sixth grade. The teaching of formal grammar in the sixth grade is not usually justified either by current practice in American public schools, or by any of the criteria above mentioned. Language is usually found listed among sixth grade subjects and the term "English" is not generally used to designate elementary school subjects because of the necessity of organizing the work to include the several elementary phases of oral and written English. Just as formal grammar is out of place as a sixth grade subject, so is rhetoric out of place for pupils in grades eight, nine and ten. Pupils in these grades are not ready for rhetoric. Formal grammar might be emphasized a little more in these grades, but rhetoric has no place here. It is not clear just why composition is not listed in any of these grades. Composition, oral and written, should be one phase of the English work in all of them. As a means of teaching the correct and natural use of language, composition is recognized as of greater importance than grammar or rhetoric. Literature is probably listed as a substitute for reading in the higher grades, and if the term "literature" implies a large amount of reading of good books and thoughtful reading of selected classics and literary masterpieces, together with some information about their authors, the work can be well adapted to the needs of the pupils in these grades. The term "reading selections" might better designate the courses intended, however, than the general term "literature," because the pupils' reading should supplement and throw light upon the other subjects of the curriculum. The courses in English in the higher grades should be so selected and taught as to emphasize, (a) ability to grasp the thought of the printed page with speed and accuracy, (b) to distinguish the essential and important from the merely contributory and trivial, (c) to increase language stock, (d) to acquire the

habit of using correct language forms, and (e) to cultivate a natural and easy style in spoken and written language.

The offerings listed for history and civics indicate that history is taught in approximately one-half of the schools in the sixth, seventh, or eighth grades. It is taught in the sixth grade in one-third of the schools. United States history is listed oftenest for the seventh grade, but it is found listed 274 times in grades six to ten inclusive. This would indicate that the 107 schools reporting are spending on the average more than two and one-half of the five sessions studying this subject. Two sessions should suffice. The schools should provide the history work that the advancement of the pupils warrants, and should waste no time in aimless repetition. There should be history stories in the early grades, elementary United States history in the fifth grade, one year of United States history in the seventh or eighth grade, and a year of American history and civics in the last year of the course. The 21 schools having eleven or twelve grades list no American history in these grades, and only three schools list civics for either of these grades. American history has a new and significant value when studied in the last year of the secondary school by mature pupils with a background of general history. Civics should be taught continuously through the grades. The child should learn by precept and practice the duties and responsibilities of citizenship as he advances in age and understanding. This does not imply that a text-book should be used all through the grades, nor does it mean that political science should be taught throughout the grades. It simply means that high ideals and standards of citizenship and civic duties should be kept continually before the growing boys and girls, and that opportunities should be provided for the practice of civic duties.² The course in general history, where only one year can be given to the subject, should be organized so as to furnish the European back-

2. Bobbitt's Curriculum Making in Los Angeles.

ground for the study of American history in the last year of the secondary school. An abundance of historical reading is needed throughout the course.

Geography is listed in practically all of the schools in both sixth and seventh grades, and in one-half of the schools in the eighth grade. The geography courses should dovetail into the history courses. From the sixth grade up the two subjects might alternate by years, and be taught in such a way that a course in each of these subjects will serve in effect as a supplement to and a review of the other. For instance, a thorough course in the geography of the American continents with emphasis upon the United States in the sixth grade, might be followed by a course in the history of the United States in the seventh grade. Then a course in the geography of the Eastern hemisphere with emphasis upon the geography of Europe in the eighth grade, might be followed with profit by a course in general history emphasizing the European background of American history in the ninth grade, and this in turn by a course in American history and civics in the eleventh or twelfth grades.

The work offered in science is varied. Physiology and general science are favorites. Hygiene and health should receive attention throughout the course for the purpose of developing right habits of caring for the body. An elementary text in hygiene in the fifth or sixth grade, and a more advanced text in sanitation and physiology in the seventh grade, might be profitably used. Nature study requires attention below the sixth grade. General science in the eighth grade gives a proper foundation for courses in classified sciences later. It is odd that no offering in botany and zoology are listed. In schools that are dominantly rural and agricultural, elementary courses in these two sciences, with practical bearing on the plant life and the insect and animal life of the community would be highly profitable. Physics is offered oftener than chemistry in the higher grades, yet the practical chemistry of the home, of air, light and water, with its bear-

ing on sanitation, common industries, and food study, would be of great service in the higher grades. Mere book chemistry is of little value, but the laboratory equipment needed for the observation of chemical changes in the practical work-a-day world need be of only the simplest kind.

Mathematics is more universally taught than any other subject in the training schools. Every school teaches arithmetic in the sixth and seventh grades and 90% of the schools teach arithmetic in the eighth grade. Algebra is taught in practically all ninth and tenth grades and in 60% of the eighth grades. Geometry is taught in all the eleventh grades and in most of the twelfth grades. The figures indicate that on the average more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ years are given to the study of arithmetic, $2\frac{1}{2}$ years to algebra and practically two years to geometry. This is about equivalent to $1\frac{1}{4}$ years of mathematics for each grade. Training schools are placing too much emphasis on mathematics. Granted the claims of the strongest advocates of mathematics, one year of mathematics for each grade is certainly sufficient, and the present tendency is not to require more than 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ years of mathematics during the four-year secondary school course. What kind of mathematics should be taught in secondary schools? Many advocate a year of work in general mathematics, to include mensurational and formal geometry and some principles of algebra. Secondary arithmetic taught in the last year of the high school when the pupils are mentally mature is frequently recommended. Arithmetic, then, taught during the sixth and seventh grades, followed by one year of general mathematics, with perhaps one year of algebra in the ninth grade and one of secondary arithmetic in the tenth, should suffice for the course in mathematics. The phases of mathematics to be emphasized are applied arithmetic, and mastery of the world of form and space relations.

As for the other academic subjects listed, Bible is mentioned only three times. To some, this might indicate the absence of the right spiritual atmosphere in the county training

schools. To those familiar with these schools, it simply means adherence to the policy of public schools generally. There is never objection in these schools to the use of the Bible in the opening exercise, and the principals frequently read Bible selections and bring out the moral lessons. There is probably more Bible reading in training schools than in the most of the white public schools. Book-keeping, mentioned seven times, might properly be one phase of the course in agriculture, farm accounting, or one phase of the work in arithmetic, simple accounting, but need not be taught as a vocation since it enters into the present and future needs of only a small minority. Writing and drawing, if taught in the earlier grades, will be used, rather than taught in the later grades. It appears that approximately 30% of the schools are teaching a foreign language. The question arises whether this is taught because of a recognized need for it, or because the instructor is prepared to teach it and is anxious to have it appear in the curriculum. There may be need occasionally for teaching French or Spanish in some of these schools, but the great majority are probably losing time in trying to teach a foreign language, especially a dead language. Music and physical training, though not mentioned frequently, should be given a place as general exercises throughout the grades in every training school. The physical training, in the form of regular play, games, and exercise, rather than of formal calisthenic drills, is an essential part of every school curriculum. So is music in the form of singing, and especially should the singing of the spontaneous and plaintive type that characterizes the folk songs of the Negro race be taught. The schools should assist in conserving this rich racial heritage.

A suggested outline of major subjects of the academic course is here given. There should be not more than four class recitation periods daily used for instruction in these major subjects and not more than three-fifths of the pupils' time should be used. The remaining two-fifths of the time

should be given to the industrial and vocational branches, and to the general exercises.

SUGGESTED OUTLINE OF ACADEMIC COURSE OF STUDY.

MAJOR SUBJECTS—GRADES 6 TO 10.

Sixth Grade.

1. Reading and spelling ($\frac{1}{2}$ time); State history ($\frac{1}{2}$ time).
2. Language and composition, oral and written.
3. Geography of American continents, emphasis on the United States.
4. Arithmetic.

Industrial subjects.

Seventh Grade.

1. Grammar and composition, oral and written.
2. Reading and spelling ($\frac{1}{2}$ time); physiology ($\frac{1}{2}$ time).
3. History of the United States, supplemented by practical training in civics.
4. Arithmetic.

Industrial subjects.

Eighth Grade.

1. Selected and literary readings and composition; reports on supplementary reading.
2. Geography of Eastern hemisphere, emphasis on Europe, especially England and France.
3. General science.
4. General mathematics.

Industrial subjects.

Ninth Grade.

1. Literary selections and selected readings; sentence and paragraph study; short theme writing.
2. General history, emphasis on European background of American history.
3. Botany ($\frac{1}{2}$ time); zoology ($\frac{1}{2}$ time).
4. Algebra.

Vocational subjects.

Tenth Grade.

1. Literary classics, short theme writing, selected reading and reports on readings.
2. American history and civics.
3. Secondary arithmetic or elective.
4. Practical chemistry or physics.

Vocational subjects.

SUITABILITY OF INDUSTRIAL SUBJECT-MATTER.

It will probably be agreed that boys in training schools ought to study agriculture and shop-work and subjects listed under these general heads, and that the girls should study the subjects listed under home arts and sciences, and farm-wifery. Some of the subjects listed under handicrafts, however, are of doubtful value. Broom-making, for instance, is taught in four schools. There is justification for teaching broom-making under some conditions. If broom-corn is grown in the community, or if it can be established that broom-corn can be profitably grown there, then broom-making may be established as a profitable industry. If, however, the industry is taught merely because the school has an instructor who can teach it, and if the industry is in no way linked to the life of the community and given a permanent place there as a useful practical industry, under this condition it is not worth the cost of the equipment, and is open to the criticism of being a mere fad.

The teaching of such subjects as basketry and chair caning, when the material used comes from a distance and when its cost prohibits its use for practical purposes, is likewise out of place in the higher grades. The varied practical uses of the corn-shuck, however, and the repair of shoes and harness, etc., the use of native products such as split-oak and fibrous material for making baskets, chair bottoms, etc., are to be commended as an important phase of handicraft and home art for boys and girls.

In 73 of the 142 schools a little over one-half of the total

number, 2,186 pupils, or 43% of the total number of boys fourteen years of age and over, are taking vocational agriculture.³ Only 11% of the girls fourteen years of age and over are registered as taking vocational home economics, but it must be borne in mind that the term "vocational" is used here to apply solely to schools that receive aid from the Smith-Hughes Fund and the amount available from the Smith-Hughes Fund to aid in vocational home economics, \$5,209, is only a trifle more than 13% of the amount available for vocational agriculture, \$38,574. As a matter of fact, it is known among state agents of Negro schools that practically all girls and boys over fourteen years of age in the training schools spend from 180 to 750 minutes per week in practical agriculture, the shop, the home economics laboratory, or in some other industrial pursuit.

The industries taught in training schools should be industries that have a practical and permanent value in the community. It is of value that the larger vocational industries by which boys and girls earn or justify their living receive systematic attention in training schools. In addition to vocational activities, however, the industrial activities in the training schools should cover what Bobbitt calls "un-specialized practical labors".⁴ These labors are such as may be used by members of the family upon the home premises, sometimes at other places in the community. Many of these abilities can be and are developed without school training, but it is none the less the business of the school to find out whether or not these abilities have been acquired by the pupils and, if not, to teach them. These practical labors cover such a knowledge of ordinary tools and materials, and the process connected with their use, as to give ability in the proper care, repair and use of the common things with which we are in almost daily contact. It is a knowledge and use of

3. See appendix, Table XIII.

4. Bobbitt's Curriculum Making in Los Angeles.

such abilities that make the difference between an unattractive, well-kept home or farm, and one that has been allowed to run down. The difference between prosperity and adversity, between a happy home and an unhappy one in the country, frequently hinges upon the ability and disposition of those in the home to perform successfully these "unspecialized practical labors".

SUITABILITY OF TEACHER-TRAINING SUBJECT-MATTER.

The four subjects mentioned most frequently under teacher-training, probably represent, generally speaking, the phases of the professional work which should receive major emphasis in schools admittedly not normal schools, but merely makeshift teacher-training institutions designed to provide the rural schools with a type of teacher a little better prepared to do the work than the type of teacher now usually found in Negro schools of the 1-teacher and 2-teacher type. In outlining a four-semester course for schools of this type, it would seem advisable to outline the work under the four following heads:

1. General aims and principles of elementary teaching.
2. Rural and elementary school management.
3. Reviews and special objectives in common school branches.
4. Practice teaching and special methods.

Psychology and courses in pedagogy involving anything but the simple principles of teaching in rural schools are out of place in schools of this type which do not aspire to the rank of normal schools.

QUANTITY OF SUBJECT-MATTER LISTED.

A pupil in the sixth grade of county training schools is carrying, on the average, eight academic subjects and two industrial subjects.⁵ This does not mean, however, that he

5. See appendix, Table XIV.

is reciting ten subjects daily throughout the school session. By reducing quantity of subject-matter to a basis of recitations five times a week for the entire session, it is found that the average sixth-grade pupil has 6.5 academic subjects and 1.5 industrial subjects, or a total of eight subjects daily. In other words, a sixth-grade pupil is carrying, on the average, eight subjects a day, of which 80% is in the academic field and 20% in the industrial field. It has already been noted that one-half of the training schools are organized to teach vocational agriculture, which means that in these schools from one-third to one-half of the school day is devoted to the vocational subject. In these schools, sixth-grade pupils are carrying the six and one-half academic subjects daily and reciting on them in one-half of the school day of three hours. Even in schools not organized for vocational work under the regulations of state and federal boards, 60 to 90 minutes daily are devoted to the industrial work, thus shortening the school day for academic work from six hours to four and one-half or five hours.

The situation, on the average, in grades seven and eight, corresponds closely to the situation in grade six. There appear to be fewer academic subjects in grades nine to twelve and the average number of academic subjects listed for the twelfth grade approximates the number of subjects usually approved for secondary schools, four major subjects per year, but it must be borne in mind that teacher-training subjects are introduced, beginning with the tenth grade and that, with such a large percentage of subjects listed five times per week and for the whole session, the average number of daily recitations is quite as large as in the sixth and seventh grades.

With respect to the quantity of subject-matter, one is justified in reaching the following conclusions:

1. The training schools list as great a variety of academic subject-matter as is usually listed in state courses of study for corresponding schools and grades.

2. Training schools list, in addition, a variety of industrial and vocational subject-matter in excess of that usually found listed for schools of corresponding size and grades.

3. Training schools try to teach in each grade as much academic subject matter as any school of corresponding size and number of grades, within a period of time daily, shorter by from one to three hours than the school day of the usual public school.

4. The fact that these schools are attempting so much more work than is usually found in a school of corresponding size and grade, may account in a large measure for the low achievement results in reading, arithmetic and composition shown later.

COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOL DORMITORY LIFE.

The training schools are rapidly providing dormitories to accommodate students from distant parts of the counties. The records show that 30 schools have dormitories and boarding facilities.⁶ Because of the educational advantage of trained teachers having control of pupils outside of school hours, it is important to insert here some facts concerning the dormitory life of pupils in training schools.

Replies to the question as to the educational value of dormitory life came in the form of general statements with meager details. Two principals wrote that the dormitory was conducted as a "model home". Five principals gave the educational value of dormitory as "practice in house-keeping", and others varied this answer by writing "household management". Three principals stated that the activities in the boarding department were "correlated with home economics". In three schools pupils were reported held responsible for good deportment and obedience to regulations and graded on care of dormitory. One school reports the

6. See appendix, Table XV.

keeping of study hours. Perhaps a combination of these replies will suggest some of the educational possibilities of dormitory life and the opportunity there afforded for developing correct habits of living. Since a large proportion of those living in dormitories seek the opportunity to earn all or a part of their board and lodging, the unspecialized labor in connection with the operation of a training school should be done by students looking for an opportunity to labor.

Three schools report no charge for board, but only a small dormitory fee of from \$1.50 to \$3.00 per month. In these schools the pupils bring their provisions from home and under the direction of the matron, these provisions are used in the preparation of the meals. In some of the schools, the pupils prepare all of their own meals. The administrative difficulties in a plan of this kind are obvious as are the hygienic objections. Few of these schools are equipped to provide easily for pupils preparing their own meals daily and there is little chance of a balanced ration, if the pupils use only the provisions they can bring from their homes every week or two. The plan of permitting the children to contribute towards their board in farm produce is to be commended, provided some plan can be worked out for the matron in charge to direct what quantity should be brought by each pupil and so to divide the offerings of the students as to supply at each meal a well-balanced ration.

The particular value, however, of the control of the teachers over the pupils in the dormitory, should come from the intelligent direction of the pupils' leisure time. Part of the time should be spent in play and physical exercise. Part of the time should be devoted to reading. The schools should provide the right moral and religious atmosphere to help to build up the characters of the boys and girls. The pupils have the opportunity in this leisure time to develop habits that will lead to healthy bodies and healthy minds, and the wholesome influence of strong teachers of the right type is nowhere more needed than here.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

On a basis of the findings reported herein, the following recommendations are offered:

1. Much of the subject-matter taught in the higher grades of training schools is either of little value or unsuited for the grades in which it is taught.
2. Both the academic and industrial curricula are in need of careful reorganization to provide subject-matter that will be of the largest possible service to the pupils.
3. The training schools are offering more subject-matter than the pupils have time for and utilizing more time than is required for some subjects. Much subject-matter should be stricken out and the time allotted to the teaching of desirable subject-matter used to better effect.
4. The dormitory life of the pupils in training schools should provide an opportunity for wholesome educational development along many lines, particularly for their physical welfare and the proper use of their spare time.
5. There is urgent need for a conference of those who direct county training schools to try to determine upon minimum essentials in these schools in the matter of academic, industrial and vocational, and teacher-training subject-matter, and to decide how far curricula should be uniform and what variations in different training schools are desirable.
6. Above all, the curriculum needs to be simplified and all subjects taught, thoroughly taught.

CHAPTER IV.

IRREGULAR ATTENDANCE, RETARDATION, AND DISTANCE PUPILS COME TO SCHOOL.

The low economic position of the Negroes in the South and the scarcity and inadequacy of their schools lead one to expect to find in the training schools an unusually large number of pupils in the lower grades, many of them over age, a changing school population, and irregular attendance, especially at planting and harvesting time. It is worth while to compare county training schools with other schools with respect to these things, and to study causes and suggest ways to improve conditions. It is interesting to note and discuss in this connection the following points:

1. How much time is lost by pupils from entering school late and dropping out before the close?
2. How much time is lost from irregular attendance after enrollment?
3. In what months is attendance most irregular?
4. What are the chief reasons why pupils attend so irregularly?
5. How are pupils of various ages distributed through the grades?
6. How far do pupils come to attend school?

Data received from more than 100 training schools furnish a sampling of the prevailing situation and throw some light on these questions.

LOSS OF SCHOOLING RESULTING FROM IRREGULAR ATTENDANCE.

More than one-third of the training school pupils (10,325 out of 28,575,—36%)¹ enter school at any time from the second to the seventh month after the opening month. The

1. See appendix, Table XVI.

figures here used do not take into account a large number of pupils who enter a few days, or even two or three weeks, after the opening, a practice known to be far too common. Indeed, many families and children seem to adopt the policy of waiting until the school has made some headway before starting in. A large number of pupils (4,179 out of 28,575, —14.5%) drop out before the close of the session. The data do not show whether the pupils who drop out are the same as those who enter late, but it is clear from the figures that from 40% to 50% of the pupils in training schools lose from one to seven months of school on account of coming in late or dropping out before the close.

In order to get at the actual time lost from entering late, it is found desirable to estimate the total number of misses of one month of school. The method used for making this estimate is given in the appendix.² It is found that in 1920-21 there were 39,707 misses of one month of school. If these misses of one month are distributed equally among the 28,585 pupils in the 108 schools from which these data were received, the loss of time for the whole group amounts to 1.4 months out of the 8-month session. To say that there is a waste here of 17.5% of the time of the whole group of pupils, or of the \$70,000 required to pay the salaries of the teachers in these schools for the 1.4 months, does not adequately express the wastage. It is better to say that if it were possible to get the children into the school at the opening and keep them until the close, the whole group of pupils would derive really more benefit from a session 6.6 months in length, than they now derive from a session of 8 months.

But the loss of schooling due to absence from school after enrollment is even greater. This loss is estimated from the enrollment and average daily attendance in the months of October, January, and April. In 100 county training schools the attendance for these three months is found to be 76.4%

2. Pages 83 and 84.

of the enrollment.³ This means in effect that 23.6% of the pupils are absent all the time, and, calculated in terms of the whole group to be served by the school rather than of the individual pupils, it means that 23.6% of the time of the school is lost on account of absence. This is in 1.9 months. Adding this to the time lost by pupils from dropping in and out at all times and seasons, 1.4 months, there is found a total loss of 3.3 months of schooling out of the 8 months, from non-attendance alone. Thus the wastage above referred to is more than doubled. But mere loss of days on the part of pupils does not constitute the total loss of time. There must be added to this, the loss of the teachers' time resulting from the difficulties of administration and school management brought about by frequent absence, and the time consumed in trying to bring laggards up to the class standard of achievement. It is not too much to say that non-attendance reduces the efficiency of the training schools more than fifty per cent.

As bad as this situation is in the county training schools, however, it is better than in other Negro schools. According to the Virginia and Alabama Surveys, attendance in Negro rural schools was found to be 61.7% and 52.7% respectively, of the enrollment. Indeed, we cannot truly say that it is any worse than in the rural schools of these same thirteen states. In the Statistical Survey of Education for 1917-18,⁴ the average length of term for these states is found to be 130 days and the average number of days lost 56, or 43%. There may be a slight comfort in knowing that the training school pupils have, after all, lost only 41% of the time (although we have no doubt that more accurate computations based on fuller data would reveal a higher loss), but such a discovery should not militate against taking steps to try to improve the situation.

3. See Appendix, Table XVII.

4. Bonner, Bulletin No. 31, 1920, U. S. Bureau of Education.

THE WHEN AND WHY OF IRREGULAR ATTENDANCE.

Entrance in the schools is heaviest in the month of September, October, November, and January, and in the order named.⁵ The fact that most of the schools open in September and October accounts for heavy entrance in those months. The heavy entrance in November and January, however, indicates that the harvesting season is over and the children can more easily be spared from their farm tasks. Another reason why entrance is heavy in January is to be found in the fact that the end and the beginning of the year are the periods when the Negro tenants move from one farm to another. It is probable that not all training schools are so located as to feel the effect of this shifting population, found in many parts of the South, but this condition unquestionably accounts in part for pupils leaving school in November, December, and January, and for the late entrants into school in December, January, and February.

This assumption is borne out by the figures. The per cent. of the whole number enrolled leaving in the last four months in which schools are in session (9.5%)⁵ from February to June inclusive, in nearly double the per cent. leaving in the first five months (5%),⁵ September to January inclusive. Not only do the figures show a heavy dropping out in March and April, but they also show⁶ a lower average attendance in April than in October and January.

The principals of 100 training schools were asked to list three reasons why, in their judgment, pupils enter late and quit before school closes. The main reasons listed are farm work (79 times), poverty (52 times), and indifference (48 times). Twenty-one replies given were to the effect that pupils and parents see no need for education, while sixteen stated that landlords interfered with the school attendance of pupils. The statement was made eleven times that there was

5. See appendix, Table XVI.

6. See appendix, Table XVII.

objection to the industrial courses found in training schools. Other reasons expressed from one to six times were: Advanced age of pupils in low grades, desire to make money, migration, domestic service in white homes, poor school facilities, poor instruction, illness, bad weather, bad roads, loss of interest, and change of schools. Approximately 60% of the reasons given are economic. It would be difficult to estimate, however, the per cent. of cases in which the pressure of economic necessity compels withdrawal from school. It is very apparent, too, that a large number of pupils remain out of school on slight and flimsy pretexts. Some principals have accounted for non-attendance at school as "an old habit among colored folks". It is, of course, true that the lack of application of compulsory attendance laws has failed to develop a habit of regular school attendance. If we may judge from the evident desire on the part of Negroes throughout the South to better their condition and the sacrifices they have made to establish schools, it is probable that the statements made that they are indifferent and that they see no need for an education, are to be interpreted to mean that parents and pupils have not yet been made to realize the value of going to school every school day, and the need for that thoroughness in school work which can come only as a result of full and regular attendance.

AGES OF PUPILS AND DISTRIBUTION THROUGH THE GRADES.

Practically one-third of the pupils enrolled in training school (31.7%)⁷ are in the first grade. This is a large proportion of the total number enrolled. In 386 cities of the United States, 19.4% of the children enrolled in school were found in the first grade.⁸ Tennessee shows 29.6%⁹ of all of its public school children enrolled in the first grade, while Vir-

7. See appendix, Table XIX.

8. L. P. Ayres' diagram.

9. State Report, 1921.

ginia has in the first grade 39.6%¹⁰ of the colored children enrolled in public schools in the counties. A better showing in the training schools is expected because in this group of school grades, and from one to four high school grades are found, while in the Tennessee and Virginia systems many of the schools are elementary schools only. The per cent. of enrollment of the training schools in the second grade (14%) equals the standard for the cities but is less by one or two in succeeding grades up to the tenth. It is much smaller in the eleventh grade, but many of the training schools make no effort to go beyond the tenth grade.

Seven and nine-tenths per cent. of the training school pupils are above the seventh grade. The enrollment in secondary schools in the United States is 9.4%¹¹ of the total enrollment in elementary and secondary grades, while in the 386 cities referred to above, the number of children enrolled in the four grades above the seventh is 12.5% of the enrollment in the first eleven grades. If the training schools were typical of the Negro schools of the South, the proportion of pupils enrolled in high schools might be considered satisfactory. But the training school is not a typical Negro school. It is, in the great majority of cases, the only public school for Negroes in the county offering any high school work at all. Its high school department, in many cases, serves not only the county in which the school is located, but adjoining counties as well. Therefore, there is justification for hoping, at least, that its higher elementary grades and its high school department may enroll a relatively larger number than are usually enrolled in these grades.

More than two-thirds (69.3%)¹² of the training school pupils are over age, 28.6% are normal or at age, and 2.1% are under age for their grades. Comparing these pupils with

10. Virginia Survey.

11. Bonner, Bulletin No. 31, 1920, Table 16, U. S. Bureau of Education.

12. See appendix, Table XVIII.

63,248 colored children in the colored rural and village schools of Alabama,¹³ grades 1 to 7, 66.1% were found over age, 30.4% normal, and 3.5% under age. Other comparisons are not given because in many studies a one-year age span is used instead of the two-year span used in this study, and the relative number of pupils over age is thereby made to appear even larger than by this method. The range in the number of years pupils are retarded varies from 1 to 12, one girl in the first grade being between 19 and 20 years old, and two boys in the second grade being over 20 years old.¹³ It was found by computation that the average number of years training school pupils, as a group, are above normal age is 2.05 years, which figure may be called the index of retardation of the whole group.¹⁴

It is found that relatively more boys (72.2%) are retarded than girls (66.5%). It is also found that in a retarded group containing 209 more girls than boys, 661 more girls than boys are retarded from one to three years, and 452 more boys than girls are retarded from four to twelve years. This may be an indication that girls are more intelligent than boys, but it probably means that boys stay out or are kept out of school more than girls to perform chores about the home and farm or to take odd jobs in order to help support the family.

The fact that pupils are greatly retarded in training schools is closely related to the facts brought out that they are irregular in attendance and that they are found in great numbers in the first grade. The situation calls for the adaptation of much of the work of the lower grades to pupils who are old for their grades. This may mean different subject-matter and a difference in method of teaching groups of pupils. It may call for a grouping of pupils in administrative units organized on a different basis from the regular school

13. Alabama School Survey, Bulletin 41, 1919, U. S. Bureau of Education.

14. Page 85.

grades,—a unit in which similarity of age and physical development constitute the basis for grouping together rather than equal advancement in school subjects. Such a plan of grouping school pupils is accomplished in part when over-age pupils are given the usual school subjects with younger pupils during one part of the day, and the industrial subjects with pupils of their own age during the other part of the day. Any variation from the usual plan of handling pupils in school grades calls for a larger knowledge of expert teaching than is usually found, and for expert supervision and wise administration.

HOW FAR DO PUPILS COME TO ATTEND SCHOOL?

Of the 31,125 children in 119 training schools, 15,208 (48%) live within a mile of the schools, 23,104 (74%) within two and one-half miles, and 27,991 (90%) within five miles.¹⁵ Thus 74% are within easy walking distance, and 16% more within either walking or easy riding distance. The remaining 10% include the 1,072 children who come daily more than five miles, the 554 that stay in dormitories, and the 1,508 that board in the community. Of the 2,062 pupils in dormitories and boarding in the community, 623 come from outside the counties in which the schools are located.

Since 3,134 pupils, an average of 26 for each school, come, practically all at their own expense, from some distance to attend these schools, it is evident that these schools are beginning to serve as real county central training schools. Some of the schools in some of the states are much further advanced along these lines than others. Forty of the 119 schools in six of the states enroll on the average from 93% to 96% of their students from within a five mile radius, and have only from 4% to 7% of their students coming from any distance. In the 79 schools in the other seven states, however, the number of students coming daily from beyond five

15. See appendix, Table XX.

miles and boarding, make up from 10% to 20% of the students attending.

To summarize the significant facts and suggestions presented, we have:

1. The time lost by pupils being out of school altogether during a large part of the session and by irregularity of attendance after enrolling reduces the efficiency of the training schools more than 50%. As far as possible provision should be made for part time attendance during the busy seasons and parents educated to realize the value of each day's schooling. Whenever possible, compulsory attendance should be enforced.

2. The large enrollment in the first grade calls for distribution of the teaching load. If one teacher is being called upon to teach one-third of the number of pupils in the school,—pupils of greatly varying sizes, ages, experiences, tastes, and abilities,—while from four to eight other teachers instruct the remaining two-thirds of the pupils, it is time to require a different distribution of the teaching load.

3. The number of retarded pupils found, calls not only for measures to improve school attendance, but for a careful adaptation of subject-matter, methods of instruction, and plan of organization to meet the particular needs of large numbers of over-age pupils and to hold them in school.

4. The teachers of the county should realize the place of the training school and a county system of schools built around it as a recognized centre. The influence of many of these schools needs to be widened. Pupils in the common schools of the county should look forward to entering county training schools when they have finished the common schools.

CHAPTER V.

ACHIEVEMENT OF PUPILS.

One test of the efficiency of a school or a system of schools is the ability of the pupils to do that which they have been taught to do. This study would be incomplete without some measure of the schools' success in teaching at least some of the fundamental school subjects. To guard against applying the measure of achievement to pupils in schools recently organized, and to give training school plans of operation and policies a fair opportunity to establish their worth in the field of instruction, only pupils in the sixth and higher grades were tested and these only in schools in operation as training schools for at least the third year. Tests in silent reading were given to grades six to twelve, in arithmetic to grades six to nine, and in composition to grades above nine.¹ The plan used in giving the tests was to furnish the printed forms to the state agents of rural schools for Negroes in the several state departments of education, and to request these agents either to give the tests themselves or to have the tests given by some reliable and competent school official,—a school superintendent or a well-qualified teacher. There is every reason to believe that the results received furnish as reliable a measure of the ability along the lines selected as could have been secured, except at a prohibitive cost of time and money.

ACHIEVEMENT IN SILENT READING.

The test used for grades 6 to 8 was Test II of the Monroe tests, while for grades 9 to 12, Test III, a more advanced test specially designed for these grades, was used. As the tests

1. The following standardized tests were used:

Monroe's Silent Reading Tests and the Woody-McCall Tests in Mixed Fundamentals in Arithmetic. The subject assigned for the composition was: "An Exciting Experience", and the quality of the composition was measured by the Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Scale for Measuring the Quality of English Composition.

were given in training schools in February and March, the results have been compared with standard middle of the year medians for these grades based on 130,000 scores. The results are also compared with the median for southern children as determined by the Bureau of Tests and Measurements of the George Peabody College for Teachers after testing more than 1,000 white children in each grade.² The median rate score of the 689 sixth-grade pupils taking the tests in 66 schools, was 77.5, while the standard for the sixth grade is 90. The median comprehension score for sixth-grade students in training schools was found to be 12.3, while the standard comprehension score is 18.5. The results for other grades ³ are shown both by the table and by Diagram I. Not only are the training school scores much lower than the corresponding standards for each grade, but in no case does the highest median score in any test equal the lowest standard median score in the corresponding test. Eighth-grade training school pupils on the average have not the ability either in rate of reading or comprehension of the average sixth-grade pupil. Likewise, not only are ninth-grade training school pupils much lower than ninth-grade standard, but even twelfth-grade pupils in training schools are below ninth-grade standard in both rate of reading and comprehension. With the exception of rate of reading for grades 9 to 12, the training schools, though below standard, show marked progress from grade to grade.

In considering the results of these tests, it must be remembered that the standard forms are found largely by testing white children in city systems, and that these children are more or less accustomed to being tested. The county training school children come from the country and are in no sense test-wise. It would be fairer to compare the achievement of training school pupils with that of other pupils of their own race and probable previous experience with

2. See Diagram I.

3. See appendix, Table XXI.

standardized tests. Two city surveys contain figures that will furnish a basis of comparison.⁴ Median scores on the Monroe Silent Reading Test for Negro schools in these cities and in training schools are as follows:

	Rate			Comprehension		
	6	7	8	6	7	8
Memphis	74.5	111.6	89.0	10.1	11.9	14.0
Wilmington	78.0	93.0	125.0	13.0	14.0	18.5
Training Schools	77.5	79.6	99.3	12.3	14.0	17.3

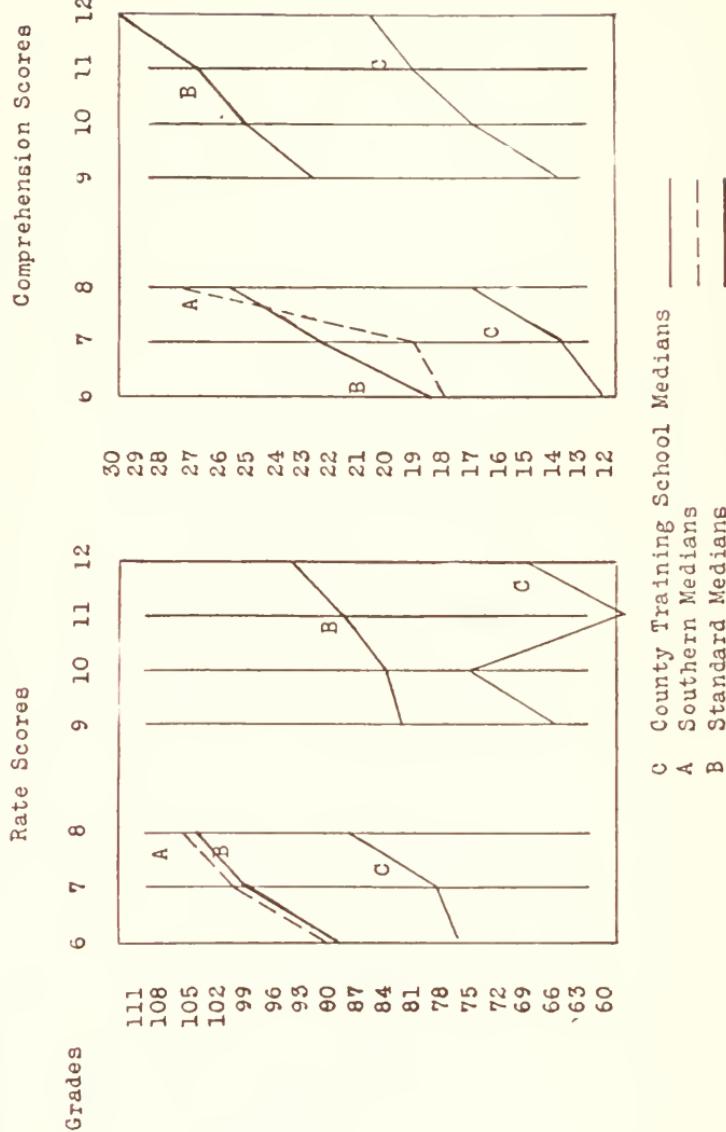
The training schools, although slightly behind Wilmington, are, on the whole, distinctly ahead of Memphis.

It is plain that silent reading needs more emphasis in the training schools. It is the kind of reading that is needed in learning to study. Heretofore much time has been spent in aimless oral reading, especially in Negro schools. Children have been called on to read orally their history, geography and physiology lessons, in addition to the lessons from their grade reader. To teach silent reading is to teach children to think when they read silently. Calling words is not reading nor is following the printed line with the eyes.

Reading rapidly and reading with understanding are found to be closely related, and it will make pupils more efficient for them to learn to read rapidly as well as thoughtfully. The pupils need to read many and interesting books,—books that will grip their attention and impel them to read on rapidly. The county training school libraries should contain such books and pupils should be urged to read them. Teachers should know how to teach silent reading and should direct silent reading and study in their classrooms. They should be familiar with such books as Klapper's "Teaching the Children to Read", Briggs' and Coffman's "Reading in Public Schools", and recent books on teaching the elementary school subjects, all of which lay particular emphasis on the value of silent reading.

4. The Public School System of Memphis, Tenn., Bulletin No. 50, 1919, U. S. Bureau of Education. Survey of the School System of New Hanover County, N. C., Wilmington, N. C., 1920.

Diagram I.
SHOWING GRAPHS FOR RATE AND COMPREHENSION SCORES IN SILENT READING TESTS
IN COMPARISON WITH SOUTHERN AND STANDARD MEDIANs.



RESULTS IN THE ARITHMETIC TESTS.

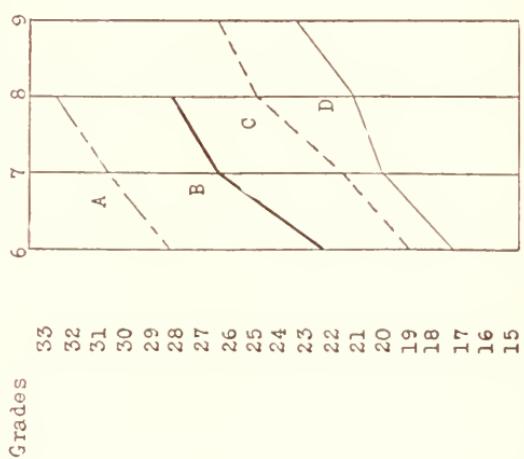
The exercises in the Woody-McCall test in mixed fundamentals, 34 in number, are simple enough in the beginning for a child in the second or third grade, and increase in difficulty. There are no exercises in the test beyond the arithmetical experience of children who have been through the sixth grade, if they have followed the course recommended in any state course of study. Accuracy is, of course particularly emphasized in this test, and the score made is simply the number of problems worked correctly in the twenty minutes allowed for the test. The best that the county training schools can do, however, as represented by the Virginia training school medians, falls short of the mid-term Southern medians as they do in the silent reading tests.⁵ The Virginia training school medians are seen to be about a year behind the Southern medians while the county training school medians are approximately two years behind. The standard medians given in the diagram, being June medians, are not comparable except as they show sixth- and seventh-grade June medians to be far above eighth- and ninth-grade mid-term medians.

From looking over a few of the test papers in arithmetic, it is apparent that errors are due to carelessness, to lack of thorough knowledge of simple number combinations, to inability to work with fractions, and to an utter disregard of the decimal point. Such errors are evidence of lack of good foundation in the lower grades. These pupils need drill and practice in the fundamental operations. Pupils in these grades have ample time during school hours to practice arithmetical operations and processes and such exercises can be assigned for seat work without taking much of the teachers' time.

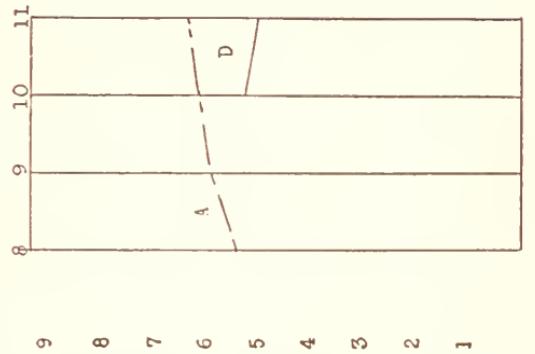
5. See Diagram II, Part I.

Diagram II.
SHOWING COMPARISON BETWEEN COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOL AND STANDARD MEDIAN

Part I. Arithmetic
WOODY-MCCALL MIXED FUNDAMENTALS



Part II. Composition
NASSAU COUNTY SUPPLEMENT TO HILLEGAAS SCALE



- A. Standard Medians (June)
- B. Southern Medians (Mid-Term)
- C. Virginia County Training Schools
- D. County Training School Medians



COMPOSITION.

There were submitted and scored 140 compositions from the tenth grade of 27 schools in eleven states, and 40 compositions from the eleventh grade of schools in seven states.⁶ The median score for the tenth grade is 5.35, below the standard median, 6.5 and even below the median for the eighth grade, 5.5.⁷ The median score for the eleventh grade, 5.2, is lower than for the tenth grade. Only two states show a median score for either of these grades equivalent to ninth-grade achievement. Many of the compositions were scored low both on form and on quality. Errors in form particularly frequent were wrong verb forms, improper capitalization, no periods or completed sentences, omission of quotation marks, and errors in spelling. The quality of the work was marred also by involved sentences and lack of directness of discourse, by lack of vocabulary and the use of provincialisms. It is plain that many of those tenth- and eleventh-grade pupils have never learned some principles of composition usually mastered in the primary grades. It is evident, too, that they need much reading and association with people that read and speak correctly, and a great deal of practice in writing. Most of those submitting compositions are certainly not competent to go out and teach children to read and write the English language.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

In order to improve achievement in such fundamental subjects as reading, arithmetic and written English, we would make the following recommendations:

1. Close and frequent expert supervision and the training of teachers in service is needed. Classroom instruction needs to be so directed that the pupils will not fail to acquire skill

6. See appendix, Table XXI.

7. See Diagram II, Part II.

in such fundamental processes as reading intelligently, using number processes easily, and writing easy sentences correctly.

2. Such supervision should give the teachers a closer insight into real teaching, a better understanding of the values of the common school subjects, and a strong incentive to come down to fundamentals and not shoot over the heads of pupils.

3. Supervision should discover the weaknesses of training school pupils and supply the correct practice and drill necessary to overcome these weaknesses.

CHAPTER VI

WHAT COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS SAY OF COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS.

What do the people in the communities in which training schools are located think of them? To know the schools' teaching corps, curricula, attendance and educational achievement may give an idea of their professional worth, but to know what their neighbors and patrons think of them will give an idea as to whether or not these schools have found a permanent place in our school systems. They may be found below par as measured by objective standards, but regardless of their imperfections as revealed by the use of the measuring rod, or their shortcomings in curricula and achievement, it is the spirit behind the training schools, the spirit of their promoters, supporters, organizers, teachers and student body, that will determine to a large extent their real character.

To get an estimate of what these schools are worth to those most concerned, the county superintendent in each community was asked to act as an interpreter of current opinion in regard to these schools. By virtue of his position the superintendent can judge of the value of the school to the community and county. He has the opportunity to see the school's work and to learn from various sources in the community just what others think of it. A form was, therefore, prepared and distributed through the state agents to the superintendents of counties in which these schools are located, calling on these superintendents for their own opinions of these schools, for any evidence of their worth or lack of worth as judged by their fruits, and for the composite judgment of the white and colored population on the value of these schools. Answers were requested along four lines as follows:

1. *Value as an Agency for Education.* Here we want your opinion as a school man of this particular school, and of this school as a type of school for Negroes.

2. *Current Opinion among Whites.* What is the opinion among your white people about this school's influence? Is sentiment apparently growing for or against Negro education on account of this school, and why?

3. *Current Opinion among Negroes.* Are Negroes generally favorable to this school? Have they shown this by increased patronage and contributions?

4. *Service and Standing of Students.* How has this school served the community by training boys and girls for useful occupations?

Responding to this request, replies came from 83 county superintendents in ten different states. The letters received were all interesting, and several superintendents discussed in an illuminating way some of the problems of their training schools. Many of these letters tell a touching story of obstacles overcome, of sacrifices and devotion and triumph. It is to be regretted that lack of space does not permit the reproduction of some of these letters.

VALUE AS AN AGENCY FOR EDUCATION.

Almost without exception, the superintendents expressed themselves as having faith in this type of school for the purposes for which it was organized. Seventy-eight superintendents gave decidedly favorable opinions on the value of these schools and 54 of these sent enthusiastic replies. "It meets a long felt need". "It is serving a purpose not yet reached by public schools". "It is ideally adapted to their particular and peculiar needs". "It is a marvelous success—a great improvement on the schools of the old type". These are samples of the replies received. Three superintendents expressed faith in this type of school, but stated that the schools were too new for them to express an opinion. Of the replies not counted as favorable, two merely stated that the schools had made little impression on the community, one that necessary frequent changes of principals had interfered

with the proper development of the school, and one expressed disappointment that the school showed little strength in the industrial branches. The industrial features of 22 of these schools, however, were singled out by their superintendents for favorable comment, 17 replies emphasized their value in training for citizenship, 12 referred to their service in training teachers, and 13 commented on their value in setting standards for other Negro schools in their counties. Eleven of these replies emphasized the value to the community of the superior type of men and women employed in these schools as teachers, and 10 were pleased that these schools supplied the secondary grades and an opportunity for more advanced academic work. Other favorable comments are that these schools promote a good school spirit, provide facilities within the county for the education of boys and girls, promote civic pride, encourage school attendance, make it easier to provide funds for Negro education, and destroy factional strife and bring about harmony in the community. County superintendents are practically unanimous in recognizing the possibilities for good in schools of the training school type, and the few that did not pronounce their schools a success were able, as a rule, to explain why their schools had not measured up to their expectations.

CURRENT OPINION AMONG WHITES.

There was expected in these communities some opposition among white people to Negro education in any form. The very history and nature of race relations in the South warrant this expectation. Where sentiment is not unfavorable to Negro education, a good deal of indifference is expected. It is not surprising, then, to find among the replies of many county superintendents, in one place, the statement that sentiment is favorable, and in another place that public sentiment is growing in favor of county training schools. This means that many favor these schools, and that indifference towards them on the part of others is being trans-

formed into approval. Sixty-eight of the replies received indicate general approval and 34 of these, hearty endorsement of the training schools by white people. In only 11 instances is it recorded that some opposition exists, and in four of these cases the opinion is expressed that sentiment is growing in favor of the training schools. Thirty replies assert that public sentiment for Negro education is being strengthened because of these schools. Nineteen superintendents express the belief that the schools' industrial courses appeal strongly to the white population and 6 back up this belief with the statement that public exhibitions of their work have brought forth general approval. Seventeen refer to the fact that white people are making substantial money contributions. Many white people are said to believe that the schools are supplying a desirable type of intelligent worker and making more intelligent and better citizens. One superintendent accounts for some opposition to the school on the grounds of envy, because the Negroes have provided for themselves a better school plant than that provided for the white group.

CURRENT OPINION AMONG NEGROES.

In 73 cases the Negroes are reported as endorsing the county training schools and in 40 of these cases as giving enthusiastic support. Such expressions as "solidly backing the school", "doing everything called upon to do", are frequently found among the replies received. In only one case are the Negroes reported as indifferent to the school and in two cases as opposed to it, but seven superintendents report opposition on the part of some of the Negroes. It is currently believed that many Negroes oppose industrial training. In only four cases did the replies indicate that opposition is based on the teaching of industries. In three cases of reported opposition to the school's industrial features, the statement is made that sentiment among them is growing

stronger in favor of the type of training provided. Fifty-two superintendents state that the Negroes give evidence of their support by their contributions and three deplore the fact that they lack the necessary wealth to make such contributions. Forty-nine state that Negroes show their appreciation by increased patronage. Altogether, the evidence shows a sentiment among Negroes in favor of the schools.

SERVICE AND STANDING OF STUDENTS.

Twenty-one of the superintendents believe that the schools are too young to judge them by their fruits, but 48 are convinced that the schools are serving well as judged by their students' standing, and only 4 superintendents express any doubt about it. Some superintendents give no general opinion on this point, but admit that the school has helped to supply the schools with teachers, or the homes or farms with useful workers. As is to be expected, the school superintendent is more familiar with the product of these schools as teachers than in any other occupation, and 22 express satisfaction with the service in this field. Nine refer to the schools' providing white homes with desirable help, and 9 refer to the service of the students in their own homes. Eight mention trained farmers particularly, and 5, trained mechanics. Seventeen superintendents find the schools rendering a large service in building up strong characters. Nowhere is expressed any doubt or fear of the product of the training schools, and a strong opinion prevails that the communities are better because of the work of these schools.

SUMMARY.

In so far as the evidence submitted by 83 county superintendents in 10 different states reveals current opinion concerning the value of the training schools, there can be no doubt that there is a strong sentiment among both white people and colored people in favor of these schools, and that both the

judgment of school men and the service and standing of their students justify the current popular estimate of their value.

All who have been brought in contact with the county training school idea, endorse it. From all quarters come expressions of faith in the ultimate triumph of this type of school. Yet there is no doubt that the training schools have many weak points. If attention is given to strengthening their organization, to making attendance more regular, to simplifying the curricula and teaching the essential things, the county training schools will justify the faith of their organizers and promoters and win a permanent and honored position in the public school system of the South.

STATISTICAL TABLES

TABLE I

Showing Interesting Facts in the Growth of County Training Schools.

Session	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	Pupils in High School Grades	For Salaries from Public Tax Funds	For Salaries through Slater Board	Average Amount for Salaries from Public Tax Funds	Appropriation of General Education Board for Building and Equipment
1911-12	4	20	77	\$ 3,344	\$ 2,000	\$ 838	\$
1912-13	4	23	74	4,612	2,000	1,153	
1913-14	8	41	184	10,696	4,000	1,337	
1914-15	17	85	267	17,986	8,500	1,058	
1915-16	27	135	404	37,395	13,500	1,385	6,392
1916-17	42	252	630	55,020	21,000	1,310	9,864
1917-18	52	308	948	78,533	27,552	1,510	12,374
1918-19	70	402	1,130	131,158	39,037	1,874	20,460
1919-20	107	624	1,649	239,252	52,894	2,236	61,290
1920-21	142	848	2,247	340,821*	62,400	2,422	75,271†

* Total amount, session 1920-21, for all purposes from Public Tax Funds, \$648,415.00.

† The General Education Board is also contributing to salaries in diminishing amounts for a period of five years beginning with the session 1920-21, when the amount was \$75,113.00.

TABLE II

Showing Status of County Training Schools by States for 1920-21 with
Respect to Number of Schools and Teachers, Enrollment, Value
of Property, and Total Expenditures.

States	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	Enrollment	No. above Grade 7	Property Value	Salary Expenditures	Total Expenditures (Includ- ing Building, Repairs, etc.)
1. Alabama	14	84	3,082	138	\$ 187,465	\$ 52,455	\$ 78,398
2. Arkansas	7	55	2,677	163	76,868	37,722	47,192
3. Florida	1	7	150	13	8,708	4,550	7,225
4. Georgia	11	70	2,795	123	139,306	38,211	74,107
5. Kentucky	8	34	1,171	136	72,160	26,355	59,955
6. Louisiana	10	57	2,182	117	126,545	38,071	70,876
7. Maryland	2	12	491	39	25,950	6,675	16,900
8. Mississippi	11	54	2,674	275	181,338	33,909	178,782
9. N. Carolina	21	136	4,252	197	198,635	93,483	139,129
10. Oklahoma	1	4	188	58	12,900	2,966	14,445
11. S. Carolina	12	92	5,779	221	134,945	47,453	71,653
12. Tennessee	11	72	3,524	264	153,578	44,425	99,790
13. Texas	10	55	1,810	173	68,834	39,962	53,374
14. Virginia	23	116	4,542	330	203,030	63,620	95,795
Total	142	848	35,317	2,247	\$1,590,262	\$520,857	\$1,007,732

Showing Data for the Value of School Plants and Teachers' Sal-

County Schools		Salaries of Teachers	
		1918	1921
Baldwin	Ala.	\$ 1,250	\$ 4,900
Conecuh	"	1,800	4,560
Coosa	"	1,450	2,500
Lowndes	"	1,550	2,960
Mobile	"	2,291	5,985
Pickens	"	1,260	3,920
Russell	"	1,367	2,500
Dallas	Ark.	2,640	6,940
Hempstead	"	3,395	6,057
Lee	"	3,960	6,195
Ben Hill	Ga.	1,320	1,590
Monroe	"	2,605	6,051
Tift	"	1,607	3,005
Washington	"	1,997	3,445
Bourbon	Ky.	2,920	5,075
Morehouse	La.	1,500	3,660
Covington	Miss.	1,300	3,200
Lamar	"	1,303	2,750
Lee	"	2,210	5,560
Anson	N. C.	1,700	4,200
Bertie	"	1,510	5,930
Columbus	"	1,084	3,980
Johnston	"	2,030	7,714
Martin	"	1,600	4,320
Orange	"	2,500	4,600
Pamlico	"	1,592	4,137
Pitt	"	1,525	2,540
Sampson	"	2,040	3,880
Wake	"	2,225	9,440
Clarendon	S. C.	1,830	2,628
Georgetown	"	4,649	10,463
Horry	"	1,440	3,250
Marion	"	3,120	6,560
Fayette	Tenn.	1,460	3,900
Haywood	"	2,745	6,200
Madison	"	1,320	2,720
Shelby	"	3,418	7,220
Wilson	"	7,908	5,487
Guadalupe	Tex.	2,591	4,580
Lavaca	"	1,616	2,792
Travis	"	3,360	8,055
Walker	"	3,385	5,440
Albemarle	Va.	1,300	3,360
Caroline	"	1,640	3,980
Greenville	"	2,510	4,640
Middlesex	"	1,500	2,240
Nottoway	"	1,467	4,780
York	"	1,600	2,760
Totals		\$104,390	\$222,649

TABLE IV.

Showing a Comparison by States of the Per Cent. of Teachers' Salaries Derived from Various Sources for Sessions 1917-18 and 1920-21.

Key to the Columns:

- A.—Number of schools compared.
- B.—Per cent. derived from public funds
(all training schools).
- C.—Per cent. derived from philanthropic boards
(Slater Fund and General Education Board).
- D.—Per cent. derived from other sources.
(Smith-Hughes Fund, etc.)
- E.—Per cent. of increase derived from public funds in the 48 schools compared in Table III.

States	Session 1917-18				Session 1920-21				Increase	
	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	E
	%	%	%		%	%	%	%		%
Alabama	7	63	31	6	14	51	34	15	7	93
Arkansas	5	83	15	2	7	71	14	15	3	90
Florida					1	61	19	20		
Georgia	4	57	27	16	11	53	34	13	4	82
Kentucky	3	76	20	4	8	69	24	7	1	83
Louisiana	3	69	25	6	10	67	19	14	1	53
Maryland					2	73	23	4		
Mississippi	3	61	32	7	11	69	20	11	3	168
N. Carolina	10	64	27	9	21	69	20	11	10	233
Oklahoma					1	83	17	0		
S. Carolina	4	75	18	7	12	64	31	5	4	97
Tennessee	5	85	15		11	63	26	11	5	23
Texas	4	61	18	21	10	69	19	12	4	127
Virginia	6	69	30	1	23	62	38	0	6	109
Totals	54	71	23	6	142	64	26	10	48	107

TABLE V.

Part I. Showing Salaries of Principals and Teachers in 128 County Training School

No. Principals	Total Annual Salaries Prin.	Average Annual Salary Prin.	No. Teachers	Total Annual Salary Tch.	Average Annual Salary Tch.	No. Principals and Teachers	Average Annual Salary Both
128	\$134,201.50	\$1,048.45	637	\$356,258.50	\$559.27	765	641.12

Part II. Showing a Distribution of the Annual Salaries of the Principals of 128 County Training Schools.

\$600	\$700	\$800	\$900	\$1000	\$1100	\$1200	\$1300	\$1500	\$1600	\$1800	Total
19	2	9	6	44	6	17	9	12	2	2	128
(..... 28%										Median \$1,034.25	

Part III. Showing a Distribution of the Annual Salaries of 628 Teachers in County Training Schools.

TABLE VI.

Part I. Showing Experience and Tenure of Teachers in County Training Schools. Years' Tenure in Present School (732 Teachers).

.....2 to 4.9 years.....)					5 to 9.9 Years	10 Years & Up	Grand Total
1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Total			
311	149	98	46	604	91	37	732
42.5%							

Part II. Showing Experience and Tenure of Teachers in County Training Schools. Years' Experience as Teachers (746 Teachers).

.....1 to 4.9 years.....)					5 to 9.9 Years	10 to 14.9 Years	15 to 19.9 Years	20 Years & Up	Grand Total
1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Total					
78	68	61	60	267	170	103	91	115	746
10.4%							64%	15%	

TABLE VII.

Showing the Number of Training School Teachers Attending Summer Normals in the Years 1919, 1920, and 1921.

	Total	Teachers 0 Years	Attending 1 Year	Summer Schools 2 Years	3 Years
Alabama	67	16	27	13	11
Arkansas	36	5	8	7	16
Georgia	56	20	15	11	10
Kentucky	26	5	10	5	6
Louisiana	59	10	14	22	13
Maryland	11	5	5	1	
Mississippi	60	17	14	11	18
N. Carolina	109	19	27	39	24
Oklahoma	24	3	7	11	3
S. Carolina	82	15	29	21	17
Tennessee	81	15	17	26	23
Texas	58	22	21	9	6
Virginia	112	57	35	14	6
Total	781	209	229	190	153
Per cent	100%	26.7%	29.3%	24.3%	19.7%
			73.3%		
			44.0%		

TABLE VIII.

Part I. Showing Number of Teachers Holding Degrees, Diplomas, and No Diploma and Median Number of Years of Schooling Above the Common School for Each Group.

No. Sch.	No. Tchrs.	Number Holding			Per Cent. Holding			Median Years Above Common School		
		Deg.	Dip.	Neither	Deg.	Dip.	Neither	Deg.	Dip.	Neither
131	782	92	544	146	11.7	69.6	18.7	8.3	4.9	3.7

Part II. Showing Number of Years of Schooling Above the Common School Course Reported by 782 County Training School Teachers.

Part III. Showing Professional Training in Weeks Received by 781 Teachers in
County Training Schools.

Weeks.														Total	
0	6.1	12.1	18.1	24.1	36.1	48.1	60.1	72.1	84.1	96.1	108	&			
to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	to	108	Up			
6	12	18	24	36	48	60	72	84	96	108					
192	71	95	60	102	39	16	87	10	13	24	72			781	
							(.....	206.....)							
							(.....	363.....)							
									46.5%						

24.5%

TABLE IX.

Showing Teachers in Training Schools Classified as Primary, Elementary, High School and Special.

Primary = Grades 1 to 3; Elementary = Grades 4 to 6;
H. S. = Grades 7 to 12

	Schools	Teachers	Primary	Elementary	High School	Special
Alabama	9	59	20	14	14	11
Arkansas	6	36	12	9	8	7
Georgia	9	56	17	15	13	11
Kentucky	6	26	7	6	6	7
Louisiana	10	59	17	10	13	19
Maryland	2	11	4	2	3	2
Mississippi	9	56	17	12	17	10
N. Carolina	16	109	37	30	22	20
Oklahoma	3	24	6	5	10	3
S. Carolina	13	82	34	20	20	8
Tennessee	12	79	23	20	19	17
Texas	11	58	15	12	15	16
Virginia	21	110	39	35	27	9
Total	127	765	248	190	187	140
Per Cent. of Total			32.5	25	24.5	18

TABLE X.

Part I. Showing Number of Teachers Carrying Different Loads Expressed in Terms of
Number of Grades or of Subjects Taught.

Explanation: S=Subject or Subjects; G=Grade or Grades;										2 G	1 S	Two Grades and One Subject		
1G	2G	3G	4G	1G	2G	3G	1G	2G	3G				4S or More	Total
				1S	1S	1S	2S	2S	1S	2S	3S			
120	152	63	9	41	58	15	9	21	6	85	47	75	58	759
(.....224.....)				(.....73.....)				(.....27.....)						

Part II. Showing Number of Teachers Carrying Different Loads Expressed in Terms of
Number of Daily Recitations.

2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26		Total
-3	-5	-7	-9	-11	-13	-15	-17	-19	-21	-23	-25	-27		
40	76	108	179	114	98	62	45	8	9	6	2	3		750
(....116....)	(.....499.....)							(.....28.....)						

Part III. Showing the Number of Teachers with Varying Lengths of Average Daily Recitation Periods.

TABLE XI.

Showing Number of Schools and Grades in Which Different Academic Subjects Are Taught as Reported by 107 County Training Schools.

Number of Schools	107	103	89	79	39	21	9
Grades	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
SUBJECTS:							
1. Reading	88	70	20	1
2. Spelling	104	93	57	26	7
3. English	62	57	52	44	14	...	3
4. Grammar	53	48	41	17	4	4	...
5. Rhetoric	21	33	21	5	1
6. Literature	14	18	22	22	7
7. U. S. History	75	95	59	31	14
8. State History	33	11	10	1
9. Civics	29	51	42	21	10	3	...
10. General History	17	33	13	11	1
11. Geography	101	94	45	13
12. Com. Phy. Geog.	4
13. General Science	39	43	13	7	4
14. Physiology	48	56	22	4	...	2	...
15. Hygiene	28	25	8	2
16. Sanitation	9	6	...	2
17. Nature Study	2	2
18. Physics	4	10	11	5
19. Chemistry	3	4	6
20. Arithmetic	107	103	80	47	10
21. Algebra	52	76	30	6	...
22. Geometry	10	18	21	6
23. Bookkeeping	3	1	2	1
24. Bible	1	2
25. Languages	13	25	17	12	2
26. Writing	60	51	31
27. Drawing	38	22	31
28. Music	11	8	10	5	2	...	1
29. Physical Training	5	7	4	2
Total Times Subjects Listed	854	801	637	461	217	103	41
Different Subjects	18	18	21	23	17	13	12

TABLE XII.

Showing Subjects Listed under Boys' Industries, Girls' Industries, and Teacher-Training, and Number of Times Listed by Principals of 107 County Training Schools.

Boys' Industries		Girls' Industries		Teacher-Training	
Subjects	Times Listed	Subjects	Times Listed	Subjects	Times Listed
Agriculture		Home Arts—		Principles of Teaching	
Animal Husbandry	14	Sewing	62		20
Plant Husbandry	13	Domestic Art	12	Practice Teaching	20
Project Work	5	Needle Work	6	Methods	17
Gardening	4	Dressmaking	2	School Management	15
Farm Accounts	3	Nursing	2	Review State Examination	1
Horticulture	2	Laundering	1	Normal Course	1
Agronomy	2	Millinery	1		
Poultry	2	Designing	1		
Soils	1	Home Science—			
Farm Tools	1	Domestic Science	12		
Shop Work—	29	Cooking	54		
Manual Training	16	Home Economics	15		
Wood Work	12	Housekeeping	7		
Carpentry	8	Canning	1		
Mechanics	6	Food & Health	1		
Painting	3	Farm-Wifery—			
Drawing	3	Agriculture	5		
Brickmasonry	1	Gardening	4		
Handicraft—	2	Poultry	2		
Basketry	7	Farm Accounts	1		
Chair Caning	5	Horticulture	1		
Broom-making	4	Plant Husbandry	1		
Shoe-making	2	Handicraft—	22		
Cobbling	2	Basketry	3		
Shuck-work	2	Weaving	1		
		Manual Training	1		
		Shuck-Work	1		
		Chair-caning	1		
Total Times Listed	213		230		74
Different Subjects	26		26		6

TABLE XIII.

Showing Some Important Facts Regarding the Teaching of Vocational Agriculture and Vocational Home Economics in County Training Schools in 1920-21.

1. Number of county training schools in which vocational agriculture was taught in 1920-21.
2. Number of teachers employed to teach vocational agriculture.
3. Number of pupils taking vocational agriculture.
4. Total Federal funds (Smith-Hughes) expended during 1920-21 on salaries or anything else in county training schools.

The four facts above enumerated for vocational home economics also.

V. A. = Vocational Agriculture; V. H. E. = Vocational Home Economics

States	1		2		3		4	
	V.A.	V.H.E.	V.A.	V.H.E.	V.A.	V.H.E.	V.A.	V.H.E.
1. Alabama	5	5	5	5	152	178	\$2660	\$ 499
2. Arkansas	6	1	6	1	199	20	2216	100
3. Georgia	7		8		295		2983	
4. Louisiana	9	15	11	5	270		5139	1040
5. Kentucky	1	1	1	1			900	125
6. Maryland	1		1		10		250	
7. Mississippi	4	4	8	4	56	92	873	105
8. N. Carolina	18	5	18	5	388	250	9370*	2120
9. S. Carolina	5	1	5	1	118	23	1645	420
10. Tennessee	7		7		504		4250	
11. Texas	6	2	6	2	116	72	3111	800
12. Virginia	4		4		78		4177	
Total	73	24	80	24	2186	685	\$38574	\$5209

*Estimated.

TABLE XIV.

Showing Number of Subjects Offered in One Session in Each Grade,
Also Per Cent. of Subjects Offered for Whole Session and for
Parts of a Session, and Per Cent. of Subjects Offered
from One to Five Times Per Week.

A. Academic Subjects.

Grades	Total Schools	Total Subjects Offered	Avg. Subjects Offered 1 Sess.	Per Cent of Subjects Offered.				Per Cent of Subjects Listed Various Number Times Per Week.				
				For Whole Session	More than $\frac{1}{2}$ Less than Whole Sess.	$\frac{1}{2}$ Session	Less than $\frac{1}{2}$ Session	1	2	3	4	5
6th.	107	854	8	92	2	6	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	72
7th.	103	801	8	92	2	6	0	2	11	15	2	70
8th.	89	637	7	90	3	7	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	73
9th.	79	461	6	88	2	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	3	77
10th.	39	217	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	91	1	7	1	1	6	11	4	78
11th.	21	103	5	92	1	7			1	5	1	93
12th.	9	41	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	98		2						100

B. Industrial Subjects.

Boys' Industries	107	213	2	90	1	6	3	5	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7	59
Girls' Industries	107	220	2	84	3	12	1	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	9	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	50

C. Teacher-Training Subjects.

10th Gr. & Higher	39	74	2	76	13	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	8	9	8	70
-------------------	----	----	---	----	----	-----------------	-----------------	---	---	---	---	----

TABLE XV.

Summary of Facts about Dormitories in County Training Schools.

1. Number of schools reporting dormitories:

Boys.....	5
Girls.....	22
2. Number of available rooms for pupils in dormitories..... 185
 (Largest number rooms per dormitory 25)
 (Smallest number rooms per dormitory 2)
3. Total number of students accommodated..... 336
 (Largest number students per dormitory, 52 in 12 rooms)
4. Average price of room and board per month..... \$10.00
 Highest price of room and board per month..... 15.00
 Lowest price of room and board per month..... 7.00
5. Number pupils earning board and lodging partially or wholly. 144
6. Occupations mentioned of those working for board and lodgings:

Cooking	6 times mentioned
Laundry	5 " "
House work	10 " "
Farm work	5 " "
Janitor	2 " "
7. Who is in charge of the dormitory?

Principal's wife	9 times mentioned
Matron	8 " "
Teacher	5 " "
8. Training for supervision of dormitory:

Special course at Hampton.....	3 times mentioned
Home economics course.....	8 " "
Practical experience.....	7 " "
No training.....	3 " "

TABLE XVI.

Showing the Number of Pupils Entering and Dropping Out of County Training Schools
in the Different Months, Session 1920-21

Part I. Number of Pupils Entered.

No.	Sch.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	T
108		10125	7364	4232	1812	3444	984	344	174	80	16	28

Part II. Number of Pupils Dropped Out.

Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	Total	%	%
Out Out										Sept. I	to	Jan. J
71	234	384	374	378	524	789	826	594	5	4179	14.5	5

Part III.

Showing Number of Pupils Enrolled at the Opening of School and Number Entering Month or More Late.

Key: Sch. = Number of Schools.
Pup. = Number of Pupils.

Sept.	Number of Pupils Enrolled Opening Month.								Total		
	Sch.	Pup.	Sch.	Pup.	Sch.	Pup.	Sch.	Pup.	Entering	Enter	Lat
56	10125	44	5883	6	1506	2	736	108	18250	10325	36

TABLE XVII

Showing the Enrollment and Average Attendance in 100 County Training Schools for the Months of October, 1920, and January and April, 1921.

States	October			January			April		
	Enr.	Att.	%	Enr.	Att.	%	Enr.	Att.	%
Alabama	1141	791	69	2160	1603	74	1699	1164	68
Arkansas	1229	1018	82	1504	1262	84	1159	830	71
Georgia	939	736	78	1688	1345	79	1688	1133	78
Kentucky	602	500	83	663	503	76	644	490	76
Louisiana	1485	1234	83	2097	1638	78	1860	1336	72
Maryland	368	287	78	484	387	80	508	380	74
Mississippi	2607	2103	80	3202	2752	85	2973	2508	84
N. Carolina	2386	1645	69	2944	2200	74	2902	2101	72
Oklahoma	806	703	87	809	750	92	882	810	91
S. Carolina	2445	1964	80	3409	2516	74	3539	2385	67
Tennessee	1914	1312	69	2298	1523	67	2332	1469	65
Texas	783	594	76	1420	1177	83	1395	1007	72
Virginia	3231	2494	77	3747	2975	79	3162	2458	77
Total	19936	15390	77	26425	20631	78	24643	18271	74

TABLE XIX.

Showing Number of Under-Age, at Age and Over-Age Pupils by Sexes and by Grade
101 County Training Schools.

Grades	Under-Age			At Age			Over-Age			Total	% of Total	Cumulative
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both			
1st				1953	2258	4211	2802	2129	4931	9142	31.7	31
2nd	62	67	129	418	531	949	1627	1372	2999	4077	14.2	45
3rd	27	62	89	272	399	671	1434	1297	2731	3491	12.1	58
4th	33	72	105	255	360	615	1261	1344	2605	3325	11.6	69
5th	20	38	58	203	261	464	964	1147	2101	2623	9.1	78
6th	21	66	87	141	237	378	674	981	1655	2120	7.4	86
7th	12	34	46	145	217	362	523	808	1331	1739	6.0	92
8th	8	29	37	97	148	245	315	577	892	1174	4.07	96
9th	13	24	37	73	155	228	167	289	456	721	2.5	98
10th	3	5	8	39	72	111	85	96	181	300	1.0	99
11th	1	10	11	4	19	23	21	32	53	87	.3	99
12th				1	1	2	3	3	6	8	.03	100
Total	200	407	607	3601	4658	8259	9866	10075	19941	28807	100.00	
% Total	.7	1.4	2.1	12.3	16.3	28.6	34.4	34.9	69.3			
% B. of Total	1.5			26.3			72.2					
% G. of Total				30.7			66.7					

		Over 16 Yrs. Up to 17		Over 17 Yrs. Up to 18		Over 18 Yrs. Up to 19		Over 19 Yrs. Up to 20		Over 20 Yrs.		Total by Grades
G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G		
13	11	11	3	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	9142	
17	24	2	5	1	2	2	2	2	2	0	4077	
70	54	24	25	4	10	4	0	2	1	0	3491	
64	90	70	48	25	16	11	4	3	2	0	3325	
29	107	121	60	45	35	17	5	13	2	1	2623	
99	115	168	62	80	32	30	18	9	12	12	2120	
21	104	188	86	110	40	66	19	21	16	12	1739	
0	94	177	58	123	44	78	32	27	12	22	1174	
1	60	109	46	85	30	63	17	17	14	15	721	
2	32	40	24	39	28	30	20	14	13	13	300	
8	3	5	1	14	7	15	12	13	2	4	87	
			1	0	0	1	3	2	0	1	8	
4	694	915	419	527	247	317	132	124	79	80	28807	
	1609		946		564		256		159		28807	

TABLE XX.

Showing Number of Pupils Boarding in Dormitories and Community and Number Coming Various Distances.

States	No. Schools	No. in School		Dormi-		No. Boarding in Com-	No. Coming 5 mi. or	No. Coming 2½ to	No. Coming 1 to 2.49	No. within 1 mi.	Total	% within 2½ mi.	% within 5 mi.	No. from Outside of	County	Both	
		Both	B. G.	Both	B. G.												
Alabama	10	24	30	54	39	69	108	95	325	641	1025	2248	73	87	17	19	3
Kansas	6				31	46	77	26	346	378	1120	1947	77	94	7	14	2
Georgia	7	5	24	29	55	69	124	64	291	526	741	1775	71	88	35	57	9
Kentucky	5				2	8	10	42	45	89	583	769	87	93	1	0	
Louisiana	10	72	91	163	22	92	114	135	384	500	1116	2412	67	83	61	101	18
Maryland	2				2	13	15	3	105	70	323	516	76	96	0	1	
Mississippi	13	16	26	42	43	110	153	65	459	807	2225	3751	80	93	28	56	8
North Carolina	14	30	67	97	33	102	135	103	688	1118	1617	3758	72	90	22	27	4
Oklahoma	3				16	17	33	2	195	254	492	976	76	96	2	7	
South Carolina	11	12	15	27	52	84	136	106	691	851	2210	4021	76	93	7	9	1
Tennessee	11	8	10	18	97	169	266	127	434	737	1758	3340	74	87	8	16	2
Texas	9	26	74	100	48	97	145	123	407	581	392	1748	56	79	31	38	6
Virginia	18	5	19	24	41	151	192	181	607	1254	1606	3864	74	89	11	49	6
total	119	198	356	554	481	1027	1508	1072	4977	7806	15208	31125	74	90	230	393	62

TABLE XXI.

Showing Results of Standardized Tests in Training Schools.

Number of Schools Tested, 66.

Monroe's Silent Reading Test.

	Median Rate Scores		Median Comprehen-		Standard (Mid-year)
	No. of Pupils	Tr. Sch.	Standard	Tr. Sch.	
Test II.					
Sixth Grade	689	77.5	90.0	12.3	18.5
Seventh Grade	609	79.6	100.0	14.0	22.8
Eighth Grade	538	89.3	106.0	17.3	26.0

Test III.

Ninth Grade	252	66.3	83.0	14.1	23.0
Tenth Grade	173	77.0	85.0	17.4	25.4
Eleventh Grade	55	59.2	90.0	19.4	27.2
Twelfth Grade	6	70.0	96.0	21.0	30.0

Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals—Arithmetic.

No. of Pupils	Tr. Sch.	Median Scores		Standard (June)
		Va.	Tr. School	
Sixth Grade	671	17.7	19.2	28.5
Seventh Grade	586	20.1	22.0	31.0
Eighth Grade	557	21.7	25.5	33.0
Ninth Grade	193	23.9	26.7	—

Composition

Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Scale.

No. of Pupils	Tr. School	Median Scores	
		Standard	
Tenth Grade	140	5.35	6.5
Eleventh Grade	40	5.2	6.9

HOW TO DETERMINE TIME LOST FROM LATE ENTRANCE AND EARLY DROPPING OUT OF SCHOOL.

The actual time lost by pupils in entering late and dropping out of school, cannot be shown with any degree of accuracy from the data, except by an approximate computation by figures on a basis of certain assumptions, as follows:

1. All schools run eight months.
2. The time pupils entered and dropped out is assumed to be the mean of the days in the month, or the middle of the month.
3. In estimating the time missed by the pupils from school, both by entering late and dropping out, it is necessary to assume that they enter late and drop out in a certain ratio. The ratio used is that which the number entering at the opening of school each opening month bears to the whole number entering school at the opening.

Let us take, for example, the case of the pupils entering in January. Table XVI shows the number of these entering as new pupils, and therefore, that 2,708 pupils entering in January entered late. Not knowing whether these pupils entered the schools opening in September, October or November, we cannot tell whether they entered four, three, or two months late. In order to determine this approximately, we found the total number of pupils, 17,514, who entered at the opening of schools in the three prior opening months, September, and November. We next found the per cent. that each opening enrollment, 10,125 for September, 5,883 for October, and 1,506 for November, is of this total, 17,514,—58%, 33%, and 9% respectively. Therefore, we estimate that of the 2,708 pupils entering late in January, 1,570 (58%) entered four months late, 894 (33%) entered three months late, and 244 (9%) entered two months late. Using these rates, we also determined the number of months missed by the 378 pupils dropping out in January. Distributing the

number entering late or dropping out early each month by this method, we get the number of pupils missing from one to seven months' time from each of these causes, as follows:

Number miss-

ing from:	1 mo.	2 mos.	3 mos.	4 mos.	5 mos.	6 mos.	7 mos.
Entering late	2673	2614	2043	1891	667	262	165
Dropping out	1441	703	633	454	408	331	209
Both causes	4114	3317	2676	2345	1075	593	374

Multiplying each total by the number of months in order to reduce the months missed to a basis of the number of times one month is missed, we get:

1 mo.	2 mos.	3 mos.	4 mos.	5 mos.	6 mos.	7 mos.
4114	6634	8028	9380	5375	3558	2618

Adding we get, 39,707 misses of one month of school. If these misses were distributed equally among the 28,575 pupils in the 108 schools here considered, we would have a loss for the whole group of 1.4 months out of the 8-month session.

COMPUTATION OF INDEX OF RETARDATION.

Accelerated 3 years,		4 pupils, =		12 years acceleration		
"	2 "	67	"	=	134	"
"	1 year,	534	"	=	534	"
	Total	605	"	=	680	"
Normal,		8259	"	=	0	"
Retarded	1 year	4969	"	=	4969	"
"	2 years	4663	"	=	9326	"
"	3 years	3850	"	=	11550	"
"	4 years	2973	"	=	11802	"
"	5 years	1897	"	=	9455	"
"	6 years	894	"	=	5384	"
"	7 years	457	"	=	5199	"
"	8 years	163	"	=	1304	"
"	9 years	55	"	=	495	"
"	10 years	12	"	=	120	"
"	11 years	7	"	=	77	"
"	12 years	3	"	=	36	"
	Total	28,807	"	=	59,807	"

The total years of retardation, 59,807, less the total years of acceleration, 680, gives 59,127, net years of retardation for the group. Dividing 59,127 years of retardation by the whole number of pupils in the group, 28,807, we get 2.05 years, the index of retardation of the group or the average number of years they are above normal age.

